The Education Digest

50 CENTS A COPY, $4 A YEAR - PUBLISHED AT ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

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Volume XVIII September, 1952 Number 1

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Subscription price, $4.00 a year; 2 years, $7.00; 3 years, $10.00 (Foreign, $4.50 a year); single copies, 50c. Published monthly, September through May. Address THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 South State St., Ann Arbor, Michigan.

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EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

Entered as second-class matter November 4, 1935, at the post office at Ann Arbor, Michigan, under the Act of March 3, 1879. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—MacIntyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N.Y. Lexington 2-8998. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 53 West Jackson Blvd., Suite 447, Chicago, Ill.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

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Volume XVIII SEPTEMBER, 1952 Number 1

Five Retrogressive Steps

The Public Schools Retreat from Freedom

GOODWIN WATSON

In The Nation

A PICTURE of what has happened to educational freedom in the period of general reaction since the death of President Roosevelt can best be seen in perspective. From the earliest days of public education, communities have often made special demands on their teachers: church attendance, Sunday School teaching, celibacy, no dancing, no smoking, no card playing, no drinking, no cosmetics or bobbed hair. There have been epidemics of loyalty laws during or after each major war.

Attacks on schools, curbs on teachers, and purges of texts are an old story. But during the past half dozen years, as the social pendulum has swung to the right throughout the Western or "free" world, there have been five significant changes in the nature of the problem of preserving educational freedom.

1. **Established policy.**—The sporadic incidents of repression which occurred during the New Deal and earlier have become organized and accepted public policy. Restraints once limited to certain localities are now the law of the land. The number of states with one or more laws designed to assure teacher "loyalty" and freedom from "subversive" tendencies has grown to 33. Twenty-six now require "oaths," despite increasing evidence that such tests of orthodoxy are worthless as security measures.

Goodwin Watson is a member of the faculty of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. *Reported from* The Nation, *CLXXIV (June 28, 1952), 653–57.*

Among the enactments is the Feinberg law of New York which calls on the Regents to promulgate a list of subversive organizations and requires dismissal of any teacher who belongs to them. When the Supreme Court sustained this law in February, 1952, John O'Donnell exultingly proclaimed in his column in the *New York Daily News*, "Guilt by association is now the law of the land." But in his dissenting minority report Justice Douglas warned: "The law inevitably turns the school system into a spying project . . . The principals become detectives; the students, the parents, the community, become informers

. . . It produces standardized thought, not the pursuit of truth." [Note: See THE EDUCATION DIGEST, April, 1952, for the text of this dissenting opinion.]

What has been the effect of bans against Communists on the freedom of non-Communist teachers? This is a critical question with far-reaching implications. One faction holds that successful attacks on Communists encourage reactionaries to make more vigorous attacks on the next group: "fellow-travelers," "Socialists," "pinks," "progressive," "New Dealers," "liberals," and finally anyone who opposes McCarthyism. Another holds that once the real (i.e. "Commie") subversives are ousted, a better and stronger defense can be made for the freedom of the remaining teachers. The course of events seems to support the first thesis.

The battle to remove the tiny number of Communist teachers has been pretty well won but the furor is not subsiding. The postwar witch hunt is seeking more victims.

John T. Flynn's tirade in the *Reader's Digest* attacked educators who have been as vehemently anti-Communist as he is. When the National Society of Sons of the American Revolution declares that "subversive textbooks are in general use in the public schools of most of the states," it does not mean that these books are instruments of the Communist Party; it means only that its spokesman finds passages which he considers radical. Dr. Corliss Lamont reported recently in the *New York Times* that a 12-year-old girl had been reprimanded by her teacher for quoting in her paper on American foreign policy a statement by that famous old subversive Herbert Hoover. The evidence that present curbs spread beyond the debatable "Communist" issue is overwhelming.

2. **Subsidized attacks.**—A second development of the past seven years has been increasingly effective organization of the forces opposed to freedom in education. In an unusual Publisher's Introduction to *This Happened in Pasadena,* a spokesman for the Macmillan Company writes: "It is a fact that certain forces, vicious, well-organized, and coldly calculating, would like to change the face of education in the United States." The best-known, but by no means the only group, is the National Council for American Education, run by Allen A. Zoll, who claimed a "large part" in engineering the ousting of Pasadena's very competent school superintendent, Goslin, and referred to "the millions of pieces of literature we have sent out during the past two and a half years to thousands of molders of public opinion."

In addition to such national organizations there are numerous local groups. A slick scheme has been evolved which usually works like a charm. A local committee is formed, with prominent names to screen the actual agitator. The starting point is any dissatisfaction with the schools, and there is always plenty to be found. Taxpayer organizations

want costs cut down. "Americanism" committees want texts and teachers purged. Clergymen deplore the "godless" curriculums. Employers complain the pupils can't spell, are disrespectful, or don't work hard enough. Any innovation in the school program, redistricting to meet population shifts, "social studies," sex education, intercultural education, delayed beginning reading, or study of the United Nations may be played up as an indication that old-fashioned virtues have been lost. Local newspapers seize on the charges and countercharges, for controversy makes news. Leading citizens make statements and pressure groups are enlisted. Those who defend a modern school program are linked with atheistic communism. Too often the school administration, seeking to restore harmony at any price, accepts the dictatorship of the obstreperous minority.

3. **Selfcensorship.**—The third change—increased *precaution* against any possible charge of subversion—is a consequence of the growing prestige and power of the witch-hunters. A Colorado teacher was advised to discontinue a study of the Mexican laborers in beet-sugar fields as "too controversial." A home-economics teacher concluded that a project in which pupils had tested certain advertised brands of household appliances would be criticized by business men and should be dropped. An English teacher found it wise to remove John Steinbeck's books from the literature course.

While there are still numerous reports of texts being banned, the repressive action now affects the stage at which books are being prepared. Publishers take few chances. Manuscripts intended for school texts now must be censored in advance of publication by the same type of mind which continues to ban *The Nation* from New York and Newark school libraries. Speakers proposed for school conventions are checked against "Red" indices and only the "safe" ones are invited.

4. **Faint-hearted defense.**—A fourth feature of the present predicament is the pusillanimity of the fight for educational freedom. Earlier attacks on educational freedom aroused vigorous and often successful opposition. Seven states introduced an oath of allegiance for teachers during the Civil War period, but in five of the seven, counterattacks led to repeal. The Lusk laws in New York after World War I were met with a fight and repealed. Such valiant struggles for educational freedom still are reported from a few communities—Scarsdale's embattled citizens, strengthened by a remarkable local newspaper, refused to bow to demands from its one-man "Committee of Ten"—but instances of successful resistance are rare.

When, in 1949, the House of Representatives Committee of Un-American Activities sent to colleges and state education boards questionnaires asking for lists of textbooks, a number of colleges raised a rum-

pus, but the public-school officials quickly complied. When the NEA Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom recently polled its 400 advisory members (especially selected because of their concern with educational freedom) only 168 replied, and of these only 3 percent believed teachers should have more freedom.

When charges of dangerous ideas arise they are no longer met by the answer that in a democracy we are not afraid to examine all sides of controversial issues. The standard defense is now one which accepts the totalitarian assumptions of the witch-hunters and merely insists that no deviant ideas are to be found in the local texts or teachers. This is surrender without a struggle.

5. **Religious controls.**—A fifth feature of the present disturbed scene is the growing influence of religion in public education. Between 1926 and 1950 the proportion of church members in the population of the United States rose from 46 to 57 percent, a change which tips the scales noticeably. *The Nation* was barred from public schools because it published Paul Blanshard's criticisms of the social and political activities of the Roman Catholic church. A lecturer in sociology at Columbia University was banned from conducting a session in a workshop designed as in-service training for teachers. The official explanation was that long before, in a pamphlet no longer in print, he had been critical of established churches. The Board of Regents of the State of New York has drawn up a prayer to be used along with the pledge of allegiance to the flag and one regent has stated that the prayer was to be "only a beginning." A school administrator objected when the dramatics club planned to present Arnold Bennett's "The Great Adventure," in which two young parsons appear as somewhat humorous characters. "It would never do, even in a friendly way, to ridicule members of the clergy," he said.

The retreat is not yet a rout. Despite the general acceptance of loyalty oaths, a handful of University of California professors made a stand which has heartened other teachers. Dean Ernest O. Melby of New York University's School of Education has warned that free education "may be destroyed by noisy super-patriots."

The present social context, however, makes the prognosis for the current plague of repression less favorable than it would have been in 1870 or 1920. We now live in an economy which extricated itself from its worst depression only by defense and war expenditures and which depends on these for continued equilibrium. Our world is pervaded by tension between two great powers, each of which strives to insulate its public from the influence of the other. The financial burdens in prospect may prove too heavy even for a wealthy nation. Neither insecure rulers nor an anxious public is likely to be tolerant of free minds. •

The Functions of Successful Discipline

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST

In Understanding the Child

RECENTLY a group of us at the University of Chicago finished an eight-year study of the development of moral character in a group of children whom we had observed from the time they were 10 years old until they reached the age of 17 or 18. At the end of our study we made ratings of these young people on all-round moral competence. These ratings were compared with facts about these boys and girls to find out what traits and what things in their experience were closely related to good character.

Among the characteristics which we studied in relation to character development were severity of discipline and consistency of disipline in the family. We found that severity of discipline which these young people had received as children bore no relation to their moral character. Some who had been severely disciplined had very poor character; others with a history of severe discipline had very good character. Some who had been very lightly disciplined had very good character; others with lenient discipline had poor character.

But it was consistency of discipline that was very closely related to moral competence. The child who had received consistent discipline, whether severe or light, was very likely to have good character.

Robert J. Havighurst is Professor of Education at the University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. Reported from Understanding the Child, *XXI (April, 1952), 35–38.*

The meaning, here, of discipline is the control exerted over a child by an older person through punishment or threat of punishment. It is essential in the rearing of children. It can be a power for good in the child's life, or a power for evil, but is essential to the relation of the child to the older person or persons who take responsibility for rearing the child.

While discipline is essential, it is not always successful. If we wish to use discipline more successfully it is useful to think of the various functions of discipline; some of them wholesome and some unwholesome. By distinguishing wholesome from unwholesome functions of discipline it may be easier to manage discipline so that it functions wholesomely.

There are three wholesome uses or results of discipline.

1. **To teach the child that the world responds in orderly fashion to his actions.** The only kind of control that anyone can achieve over his world is the control of being able to predict what will

happen when he does something. This the child learns partly by suffering from bumps from falls, scratches from kittens, and bad tastes from putting certain things in his mouth. But he also learns to predict some dangers from the punishments his parents give him, and these could hardly be learned in any other way.

This is why consistency of discipline is so important in the formation of character. Through consistent discipline the child learns that certain behavior will always be followed by punishment, even though such punishment may be light. He learns to expect the world to punish him for what is wrong (and also to reward him for what is right, provided his parents have also consistently rewarded him). Inconsistent discipline, by which we mean punishment for doing a thing one day, and indifference, or even reward for doing the same thing at a later time, leaves a child unable to predict what will happen.

2. **To teach the child a reasonable degree of social conformity.** Discipline helps to teach a child the accepted toilet habits, to wear clothes, cover his genitals, control his aggressive feelings, keep his hands and face reasonably clean, eat in ways that are not disgusting to other people, be reasonably prompt in getting to school and keeping other engagements, sit reasonably quietly in church and the movies.

Certainly there is such a thing as too much conformity, and it may result from discipline. There is some evidence, principally from simpler societies than our own, that social conformity will be learned by imitation if adults are patient enough to wait until the child has formed the habit of imitating those who have prestige in his sight. Hence this function of discipline should be accepted with some reservations, lest it produce an unwholesome degree of conformity.

3. **To help the child develop selfcontrol and selfdirection.** Wholesome discipline consists in such treatment as will enable the child in due time to make wise decisions on his own responsibility. It appears from all that we know about child development that conscience, or the inner voice that guides, warns, and occasionally punishes the human individual, develops only in situations in early life that involve punishment by someone whom the child loves and looks up to. The child experiences the "teachable moment" for the development of conscience in the years from three to six. He must be punished by someone he loves in order for him to take into himself the warning, punishing voice of the loved one. A balance of consistent punishment combined with a great deal of affection on the part of parents seems to be the only formula for the development of selfcontrol and selfdirection.

There are two unwholesome uses or results of discipline.

1. **To intimidate the child.** Discipline that is over-severe, whether

it takes the form of whipping and beating or the subtler forms of scolding and denial of love, can so intimidate a child that he will never become an independent adult. If the discipline is severe and authoritative, whether physical or not, it may turn a child into a dependent, submissive person who lacks selfdirection.

2. **To release aggression by the disciplinarian.** Disciplining a child is sometimes a pure act of retaliation by a parent who has been frustrated by the child's misbehavior. This may not be altogether bad. Perhaps a reasonable amount of retaliation is the healthiest way for a parent to solve the minor frustrations of child-rearing. It is probably better for a child to receive a sharp slap on his buttocks for striking baby brother than to be locked in a room for an hour and to be told that mother does not love him. It is better partly because the punishment which comes more closely after the misdeed is apt to be more effective, and partly because the quick slap given in a moment of anger can be followed a few minutes later by caresses to assure the child that mother does love him.

It has been said, "Never strike a child in anger," and there is some value in this aphorism, but there is more value in the opposite one of "Never strike a child except in anger." But the anger must be under control. The punishment must not be allowed to serve completely the cause of releasing aggression of the frustrated parent.

If humans were like bears, it would be a simple and wholesome matter to discipline children by cuffing them as a mother bear does her cubs. Perhaps in the family something of this mother-bear-and-cub relationship does exist, where punishment can be given and taken impersonally. Parents, within narrow limits, may safely allow the punishment of children to serve as a release for their aggression. They are so close to the child emotionally and they give the child so much affection that the child can accept occasional aggression from them without doubting their love of him. Total strangers may also safely retaliate by punishing children for depredations on their property—for tearing up flowerbeds, stealing fruit, breaking windows, or stealing from a store counter. This teaches the child that he will be punished for infringing on the rights of strangers, and unless the punishment is fearful or inhuman it does not intimidate him, but teaches him a proper respect for the rights of others.

But the people who have frequent relationships with children but are not very closely bound to them emotionally, such as teachers, club leaders, employers, and neighbors, should not retaliate when children do wrong. They may punish the children, but it should be done without aggression. On the whole these persons will find reward more effective than punishment.

Census Findings Answer the Question—

What Is Better Education Doing to Americans?

RICHARD Y. GILES

In Printers' Ink

THE American people were better educated in 1950 than ever before.

In the adult population—those 25 and older—there were more than 5,000,000 college graduates. This was a 1,800,000 increase over 1940.

About 34 percent of the adult population in 1950 had completed four years of high school or more, compared with 24 percent in 1940. Only 48 percent in 1950 had dropped out before completing one year of high school; the figure in 1940 was 60 percent who had dropped out.

The highly educated are concentrated in the lower-age groups—the marrying, child-getting, home-buying, money-spending generations.

Census figures show 915,000 college graduates in the 25-29 age group; 794,000 in the 30-34 group; 754,000 in the 35-39 group. The decline in education with older-age levels is not just a function of mortality rates: median figures on schooling completed show the same trend. For the age group 25-29, the median education completed is 12.1 years, slightly more than a high-school education. For the age group 65 and over, the median is 8.2, slightly more than grammar school.

The educational level has been rising steadily, decade by decade, the census figures show. The depression years, whatever they may have done to sales and income figures, saw an ever-growing market for education. Increasing numbers have finished high school, increasing numbers have gone to college. In 1950 there were half a million fewer who had never gone to school than in 1940. In the 65-and-over group, the number who have had no schooling comes to 862,000, but there are only 101,000 in the 25-29 group. Since the two groups are roughly equal in number—between 12 and 12½ million—the figures are comparable.

Richard Y. Giles is Washington Editor of Printers' Ink. Reported from Printers' Ink, *CCIXL, (May 30, 1952), 36–37.*

Women on the average have completed about half a year more schooling than men, but fewer have gone to college.

The highest level of education is found in urban areas, the lowest in rural farm areas. The averages expressed in median years completed are: urban 10.0 years, rural nonfarm 8.9, rural farm 8.4.

There are marked differences between white and nonwhite. Like whites, however, nonwhites show a gain from generation to generation.

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HOW MUCH SCHOOLING ADULTS OVER 25 HAVE HAD

	1950	1940
College		
4 years	5,226,000	3,407,331
3 years	1,246,000	765,354
2 years	2,829,000	1,903,919
1 year	2,240,000	1,405,000
High School		
4 years	17,751,000	10,551,680
3 years	3,984,000	2,392,759
2 years	5,870,000	4,641,000
1 year	5,163,000	4,147,955
Elementary		
8 years	17,836,000	20,756,918
7 years	5,900,000	5,141,000
6 years	4,762,000	5,018,029
5 years	3,326,000	3,497,082
4 years	3,078,000	3,544,581
3 years	2,232,000	2,065,327
2 years	1,313,000	1,180,000
1 year	708,000	514,496
None		
	2,299,000	2,799,923

Census Bureau figures based on study of population over 25 years of age.

The accompanying table shows the grade level at which adults now over 25 left school. The figures are not cumulative.

In marketing, these figures raise some interesting questions. The higher level of education, while obviously it does not mean that we have one highbrow for every college graduate, can be used to explain a lot of things. For instance:

The development of special audiences and markets. Music, for example, with certain successful good music radio stations, high attendance marks at concerts, sales of records of obscure composers.

Attendance at museums of art.

Book sales: Compare the best-seller lists of today, for quality, with the lists of the '20s.

Skepticism toward advertising—both more widespread and more temperate.

How far an increase in education implies an increase in intelligence it is impossible to settle. However, Army alpha tests from World War I and World War II, compared, show notable increase in the ability of World War II recruits. It was a major dilemma in World War II that recruits were far more intelligent and better schooled than the

majority of the regular Army noncoms.

But for marketing, the present high level of intelligence may be obscured by something else. While educational levels have been rising, income levels have risen even faster. Part of the market is highly educated. Another part, growing fast and still only semieducated, is more prosperous than it has ever been. This market goes for big claims, punchy copy, and a magic atmosphere. It has money and very little discrimination; it will buy Cadillacs and borax furniture, fancy-tipped cigarettes and rabbit coats. It will flood radio station with phone calls after a three-minute spot commercial offering free silverware. It responds like crazy.

Possibly these two markets help explain what has happened to television set sales. Geared to the new mass market, television sold at phenomenal rates until it hit the boundary. The educated market, despite fuller pockets, was slow to jump in. It will buy in time, but it will take time. It will weigh progress. Meanwhile, it will calmly build up its liquid assets.

If this is true, marketing men trained in the '20s face the danger of advertising to their own generation rather than to the new. It would be foolish to overemphasize the change or on the other hand to slur over the profitable new semieducated middle class. Still, a change is taking place. Education has many effects, some good, some not. It certainly stimulates the desire for a high standard of living. It may also cut down the willingness to take risks, build up the desire for security and develop skepticism.

Whatever the results, it is happening. ●

When Grandfather Was a Boy

WHEN we were mere boys, boys had to do a little work in school. They were not coaxed; they were hammered. Spelling, writing and arithmetic were not electives; you had to learn.

In these more fortunate times, elementary education has become in many places a sort of vaudeville show. The child must be kept amused and learn what he pleases. Many sage teachers scorn the old-fashioned rudiments; and it seems to be regarded as between a misfortune and a crime for a child to learn to read and spell by the old methods . . . As a result of all the improvements, there is a race of gifted pupils, more or less ignorant of the once prized elements of ordinary education.

——Editorial in *The New York Sun,* October 5, 1902.

Can We Help Children to Live the "Good Life"?

Conflicting Cultures within the School

HOWARD A. LANE

In California Journal of Elementary Education

MEASURED by its amount of killing and destruction, this is the most savage generation of man's history. Yet we of the Western world are the first commonly schooled generation!

As individuals we are likely better people than our forebears. They toted weapons, fought in the streets. But we are not yet enough better to survive the world we have made. We have not grown up enough to manage and use our brilliant new gadgets. We have become our brother's keeper whether or not we know him, or like him; yet we do not know how so to live.

Modern methods of production, distribution, communication are cooperative; our personal motivations and our educational procedures remain individualistic and contentious. This is the all-inclusive cultural conflict of our time. We must quickly learn to live together, to cooperate, or we shall not die in bed.

Our world is people. Our aspirations, anxieties, achievements, violence, delights, apprehensions, consist in the activities of human beings. This world's only hope lies in the rearing of enough mature people to solve its pressing problems by responsible, enlightened, active intelligence. We have a few years, perhaps a generation, to do it. Teachers are indeed the light of this world.

Howard A. Lane is Professor of Education at New York University, New York City. *Reported from* California Journal of Elementary Education, *XX (November, 1951), 107–14.*

Human beings are products of the culture in which they grow. We learn the ways, language, preferences, hatreds, values of those with whom we live as we grow. We are what we have experienced, but for each of us our experience has been our reactions to environment. And feeling is the core of reaction to experience. Feelings give to life its meaning and its quality. Feelings cannot be assigned, nor demanded, nor closely predicted. Only that teacher who senses the inner feelings of a child knows what he teaches.

The most important aspect of a child's culture is the friendly concern of grown-ups who are interested, competent in matters of concern to him, who are understanding and tolerant. In a democratic culture these adults associate with children as more experienced equals. I count every delinquent child to be the product of the failure of at least a score of adults,

only two of whom are his parents; the others are teachers and neighbors.

Human adjustments are made in terms of values and values are learned. In a completely good, balanced, integrated society, needs and wants would be identical. To the extent that wishes (values) are compatible and readily attainable, we are free from stresses and tensions; as they are incompatible and unattainable, and to the extent of their strength, we experience conflict and resulting tensions. Much of the content of life consists in making choices. Shall we keep our cake, or eat it? Shall we buy a bauble, or a bond? Life offers infinite variety of possibilities.

But tensions are biological necessities. Without them we would have no posture and no motion. It is the excessive tensions and the unrecognized ones, that disrupt balance and spoil our aim. Tensions are relieved by raising them to the level of awareness, then accepting the realities of the conflicting circumstances, or by making plans for active changing of circumstances to resolve the conflict.

We can raise to conscious level some of the conflicts common to school practice. A major one is *adult* vs. *child*. Another is *school* vs. *home*. There is the one of *workers* vs. *gentlemen*. Deeply hidden in the subconscious of the school is the old and abandoned purpose of going to school to escape hard work. Many of us were urged to go on to school in order to work more easily and more pleasantly than our parents.

A major course of conflict is our attempt to teach goodness in a society that rewards deceit, cheapness, prostitution of human motives. Today most of our universities award degrees in several of the arts of bearing false witness. This art seems now essential to political success. Near my home a famed purchaser of the political privilege of doing evil with police protection plays golf on a course teachers cannot afford to enter.

No cultural conflict is less logical than that displayed in the school's profession of belief in the importance of love and acceptance and its contrary practice of the systematic rejection of many pupils. Special classes abound for children of whom their teachers have said, "He doesn't belong in my room." Now and then I am plagued by the feeling that most of us don't want to teach any child who really needs a teacher. Surely we know enough by now to make sure that every child shall live significantly with other children in an atmosphere of acceptance and cooperative endeavor, regardless of the extent of his skills in reading and calculating.

Probably the most pressing stress of our time is the conflict between our yearning for *freedom* and our habits of *regimentation*. Long have we known that regimentation is not good for children. We find no mention of age in any great declaration of human dignity and rights. Yet, many homes and schools function as

despotisms. We have built most of our high schools and some of our elementary schools so big and house in them so many people that we can preserve life and limb only by excessive regimentation. It would be a real economy in human goods and in money to abandon our huge schools and replace them with more numerous small schools in which children can function as freedom-loving human beings.

Much conflict is expressed among us in arguments on the meaning of the word "competition." Surely we no longer mean that America has grown strong through our attempts to defeat each other. I see in human behavior no urge to defeat, to destroy. Success does not mean surpassing, excelling; it means the attainment of one's goals, the accomplishment of one's purposes. We must know that in motivating children to excellence, to being the top one, we are assigning failure to all but one. Biologically, competition is a function of scarcity. None of the "goods" of education is scarce.

Having raised some of our conflicts to the conscious level, what do we do? I propose that we do as we profess—teach the fundamentals. In American education the fundamentals have always been the pressing new needs of the people. When printing and papermaking becomes inexpensive, common literacy became a pressing new need. We taught reading and writing to force them into the culture. Now, growing in a culture that communicates much by writing, a child can be prevented from learning them only by the strongest of counter-influences. Among the strongest of these counter-influences is our making it important that he assume these skills at age six. Arithmetic became a pressing new need when money became important in the life of the common man. We have to drill hard and consistently to prevent our children from learning arithmetic now that everybody counts. The urgent, essential *new* need of our time is the learning of the ways of democracy, the methods and values of cooperation, enlightened human relations.

This large fundamental has three elements: altruism, morality, intelligence. The physiologists tell us that the most recent addition to man's physical equipment is a ganglion in the cortex which makes altruism possible. It is comforting to parents and teachers to know that this new organ is put out of business by fatigue. We really can't be good when over-weary. We must build in our boys and girls, and in ourselves, the disposition and the ability to sense how other persons feel. This will not be learned in an atmosphere of fault-finding, contention for privilege, judging, awarding of punishment and prizes. I have it on the authority of priests, ministers, and rabbis that man's original sin is selfishness. This is not news to anyone who has cared for an infant. Must not the school drop all appeals to selfishness and so manage child life that gratifications come to people who care and

cooperate in the pursuit of ever-widening satisfactions?

Morality adequate to an age of mass production and its resulting interdependency must impel persons to accept responsibility for the well-being of other people. "He who would be greatest among you, let him be servant of all" is more than a sentimental admonition; it is a fundamental fact of social life. To be valuable to others is a deep human need. A kept person is a demoralized person whether kept by parents, the government, a trust company, or another man's wife.

But may I observe that one condition is more demoralizing than having nothing to do? That is being required to do tasks that do not need to be done. Most "homework" consists of such tasks.

Schools must make children valuable to each other. One of our principal handicaps in achieving this fundamental is the graded system. To be valuable to each other, people must differ from one another. Some of the younger of us will see the abandonment of the graded system. It has no justification in anything known through the study of human growth and development. Classroom practice must be directed to intelligent enterprise meant to enhance quality of living. A simple definition of democracy is a most adequate description of a method of education for living in a democracy: a group of persons working together to improve the quality of living of each one of them.

Intelligence is learned. Should we not reserve the term *intelligence* to mean the ability and the disposition to base action on thinking? Thinking is the planning of action. Our major new need is improved respect for, and skill in, group thinking. Today's problems are too complex, the resources for their solution too vast to permit any individual to think clearly alone. Let it be noted, however, that two heads are better than one only when they seek common purposes. When contending to be right, each to have his way, several heads are worse than any one.

No one person, teacher, parent, or other adult who teaches him, is intelligent enough to understand a child all by himself. Decisions of importance to a child must be made up by a *group* of persons each seeking to promote his welfare. This group would include him, obviously. I suggest one sharp change in supervision. We must manage our schools so that it is necessary for teachers to remain intelligent. We must not leave them year after year in the same situation, teaching the same stuff to the same kind of children, while their notes and plan-books yellow with age and their practices can be carried on in a coma. Modern education is not individualized instruction. Classroom practices intended to enhance the quality of living in the world today consist in group enterprise carried on under sympathetic, moral, and intelligent leadership directed toward helping everyone in the group to lead a life good to live. •

Don't Ignore Group Forces

Implications of Group Dynamics for English

JOHN J. DEBOER

In The English Journal

TEACHERS of English and speech are generally agreed that skill in group discussion is one of the most important of the objectives in the field of spoken English. It should, therefore, receive a large share of attention in our thinking about the English curriculum. But while the importance of discussion is universally stressed, the professional literature on English has provided relatively little guidance in the development of techniques for the improvement of discussion.

Now the group dynamics movement promises to shed light on problems which have long been a major concern of teachers of English. Summarized here are some of the concepts suggested by the group dynamics movement, particularly as they apply to the problems of group discussion.

Basic to the study of group processes in the concept of the group as an entity. The group is more than an aggregation of individuals. When several of many individuals face a common problem or share a common task, they together take on the characteristics of a group, creating a network of interrelations and interactions among the members. Thus, on a simple level, the passengers in a bus are normally so many unrelated individuals. When, however, there is an abnormal delay or a minor collision, the passengers may quite spontaneously become a "group."

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Experienced teachers have long noted differences in the characteristics of groups with which they have worked. These differences do not entirely depend on the nature of the individuals comprising the groups. Classes which do not differ significantly in average intelligence, socio-economic status, or other individual characteristics of their members may differ widely in their response to identical attempts on the part of the teacher to influence them. It is necessary for the teacher to study not merely the individuals who make up the group but also the interrelationships which exist among the members of the group. Since a collection of relatively mature individuals may constitute a relatively immature group, it becomes the responsibility of the teacher to observe, not only individual performance, but also the behavior and the climate of the group as a whole. A group is mature, in the democratic sense, only

when it functions in pursuit of a common, clearly defined goal and with full utilization of the individual intelligences that make up the group.

In the development of wholesome group life much depends on the quality of the leadership. It is the truly democratic type of leadership which is successful. This type of leadership is characterized by a wide sharing by members of the group in planning and the making of decisions. The group takes pride in its achievements because it has taken a large share of responsibility for initiating and consummating the projects. The leader has served as the guardian of the methodology of shared thinking and decision. Goals are understood and accepted by the individuals who make up the group, because all have had opportunity and encouragement to make genuine contributions to the plans and activities of the group.

Leadership which avoids the extremes both of autocracy and of anarchy calls for a great degree of skill. It is necessary for the leader (in classrooms, usually the teacher) to create a genuinely permissive atmosphere, to cultivate in the members a concern for the success of the group enterprise, and to demonstrate respect for the opinions and attitudes of all persons participating. Direction by the leader should progressively diminish as the members learn to take active and responsible part in the discussion.

All teachers of English who have undertaken to train groups, by whatever of the several recommended methods they may favor, are acquainted with "problem members"—those who for one reason or another impede or fail to contribute to the progress of group thinking and acting. Some merely remain inert, unresponsive, or at least inarticulate. Others may actually create distractions by irrelevant subconversations or other nonconstructive activities. The behavior of many "problem members" may be traced to the nature of the discussion, the interrelations within the group, or the type leadership given. Some members may fail to participate because of fear of group disapproval. Others may talk too much, in an effort to win group approval or admiration. Still others may be belligerent or intransigent, chiefly because they have never succeeded in achieving a sense of belonging. For such members it becomes especially important for leaders and other members of the group to make them feel welcome and to give patient and sympathetic consideration to their arguments, however contentious or whatever the unconscious motivations of these arguments may be. Many hostilities and silent resistances that frequently develop in group discussion can be prevented if, in a relaxed atmosphere, the interests, problems, and opinions of all members are fully explored at the outset.

Various methods have been devised for making analyses of the

behavior of groups and the relationships that exist within them. None of these can, of course, take the place of an intimate knowledge of individual group members or of the group on the part of the teacher. Most familiar of the formal methods is the sociogram, a chart which identifies those individuals who occupy central positions in the affections of the group and those who find themselves on the periphery. Another device is the social distance scale, which calls for a rating by each group member of every other group member on a five-point scale ranging from full acceptance to rejection. Numerous other instruments designed to aid in the analysis of relationships within the group and of the "climate" existing in the group have been developed. Less formal, but perhaps most useful, is the teacher's anecdotal record, which describes incidents involving individuals in their relations with their peers.

Critics of the movement for the study of group process have asserted that a too elaborate machinery for the study and guidance of group activities involves the diversion of attention from the problem in hand and the development of an unwholesome group selfconsciousness. Such warnings against absorption in process rather than substance seem valid. Also, it is questionable whether complete consensus, which appears to be the aim of many of the sponsors of the group dynamics movement, is always entirely desirable. Perhaps we should sometimes cultivate nonconformism based on honest differences. Eagerness to secure full consensus can have the effect of glorifying compromise and blunting the edge of the kind of individuality which is the chief resource of democratic group thinking. Likewise the use of sociograms and similar devices has been criticized on the ground that they focus objectionably on personal relationships. Especially such a device as the "Who Am I?" questionnaire, which calls on children to identify their classmates from anonymous descriptions seems open to the criticism that children are made objectionably conscious of differences and even justified in their discriminations.

There are, of course, cogent replies to these criticisms, but they illustrate the need for great skill and understanding on the part of those who undertake to employ the procedures and devices which have been proposed by students of group development. Difficulties involved in the development of sound discussion method should not, however, obscure the urgent need for understanding the nature of group operations and the methods needed for their improvement.

Essentially our problem is not so much the group member who is colorful, aggressive, and individualistic! He will not be denied. Our real problem is to make maximum use of his talents while tapping the reservoir of interest and ideas of those who are timid, withdrawn, and inarticulate. ●

Is "Consensus" So Important?

Focus and Function in Group Discussion

NATHANIEL CANTOR

In Teachers College Record

THE literature on the nature of group discussion and "group dynamics" is growing rapidly. In studying this literature and in observing different kinds of group discussions led by professional leaders, I have been struck by a quality of looseness in the structure of the discussions, an absence of focus, and a denial of the psychological realities which characterize a group meeting. In current writings on the subject one discovers a basic, common, nonfunctional approach to an analysis of the nature of group methods and development.

I wish to suggest an alternative, functional approach to group development which calls for a different kind of role for the leader and a different kind of focus for the discussion. This approach is not new. Social case workers in this country appreciate the achievements of a functional approach to casework. During the past decade the functional approach has been extended to group work practice, to employe counseling, and to education. But this writer, so far as I know, is one of the first to explore the possibility of extending the functional approach to group discussion and "conference" techniques.

Suppose we raise certain fundamental questions: Why does a particular group come together? Why is a particular individual selected or appointed to be a leader of the group?

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There must be a common felt need prior to a group's formation. People do not come together for serious, formal discussion or activity unless they feel a mutual concern about a specific problem. A goal or goals are dimly perceived by both leader and group. The members of the group sense a certain need concerning which they want clarification or help.

A leader is the professional person representing an agency, an industry, an institution, or a school which offers specific service through the leader. Such specific service is offered to those who need or want it, as the physically ill person who wants medical assistance calls on a physician.

The professional factor in the group discussion process through which desirable group decision and consequent behavior develop is the professional worker. This worker does *not* carry all of the responsibil-

ity for what happens in the group he leads nor does he permit the group members to carry the entire responsibility. The leader's job is to perform professionally in his role. His concern is with the movement and direction of the group as a whole as it deals with the external social limitations and with the psychological developments of the individuals within the group.

The discussion leader operates by defining what service he can offer which meets the needs of the group. He presents the limited alternatives within which his service operates. He carefully and cautiously *holds to the limits* established by the service he offers and the needs as established by the group, that is, the more or less defined needs which initially bring the members of the group together.

The leader does have the responsibility to suggest goals to the group in the beginning. He clarifies for the members of the group their purpose in coming together, what kind of help *they think they want,* and how he might help them in that area. The leader, I submit, has the responsibility of structuring the discussion, of watching to see that the discussion remains focused in the direction of the needs and purposes of the meeting.

The skilled leader never does the thinking for the group and he never permits the members of the group to do their own exclusive thinking. He helps them to think in directions other than they would take if he were not their leader. He helps the individual members of the group to face problems and to come to decisions. He does not resolve their problems or make their decisions.

The leader does not hesitate to reveal his *own* difference to the group and he encourages the group members to reveal their differences. But he helps the group to find balance in assimilating difference. In brief, the leader deliberately and professionally uses his difference for the sake of the group rather than for his own need satisfaction. By the same token he is prepared to accept the resentment or hostility of the group which often, at first, accompanies his declaration of difference. His chief concern is whether the several group members will profitably use his difference or one another's differences for their growth.

The leader must be prepared to accept balance, growth, or rejection. He introduces his difference, he inquires about the direction the group has taken, he supports the differences expressed by others, or challenges likeness at such times as he deems most favorable for the growth of the individual member and the group.

This leads us to the chief difficulty I have experienced in the recent writings on group dynamics. The majority of writers consider "consensus" the desideratum of group discussion. If I correctly understand their statements these writers believe that democratic values are enhanced and preserved

by strong "we-feeling." Frustration of individual members is to be avoided. Grievances are to be forestalled.

It seems to me these attitudes imply a denial of democratic faith in people. Why must consensus be reached in order for one to join with others in an activity? So many of the group discussion analysts and leaders emphasize the need for democratic *process* and democratic *goals* in the activity of groups. They place a premium on likeness, identification, consensus. This is a denial of democracy as an ethical ideal, and a distortion of psychological reality. Consensus, that is *genuine* agreement and like-mindedness, is certainly a desirable objective when it *is consensus*. But it is one that is rarely achieved by a group of people who represent considerable differences, personal biases, different backgrounds of interest, and so forth. What often passes for consensus is submission to or fear of majority opinion, unwillingness to be responsible for difference, unwillingness to assume the risks involved in an independent position. It is after such "consensus" has been reached, that the gossip, criticism, and frustration are released in the relative safety of the conference halls or coffee shop.

Consensus, as the ideal, is a false and unrealistic objective. The group consisting of different individuals agrees on the one fundamental postulate of respecting one another's rights. Everyone agrees to permit anyone to disagree. Out of differences the members learn to weigh, to balance, to divide, to go along with others even if only partially satisfied, to go along without necessarily being in full agreement, and even, at times, to go along when one is in disagreement. One submerges independent difference for the sake of the group. This is living with likeness *and* difference.

A group needs to be functionally structured and to have its limits defined. The limits are found between the needs of the group and the services of the leader in meeting those needs. Only through such focus can confusion be narrowed and the group helped to discover how to reach its objectives. The final responsibility for determining goals lies not with the group as a whole, but with the leader *and* the group. The leader who is professional (and such skill is not acquired merely in a three-weeks summer workshop or by taking a course in "group observer" or "group dynamics") focuses the discussion, watches the movement and direction of the group, encourages both likeness *and* difference in others, and opposes the group with his own difference. He does not strive for consensus *or* for disagreement. He helps the members to discover their strengths and their weaknesses, their similarities and their differences, so that they may more profitably learn to relate to one another in carrying forward their professed goals in a spirit of compromise, partially satisfied, partially dissatisfied, but willing to work together. •

Important Factor in Home-School Relations

The Report to Parents

HAROLD I. JUDSON, BETTY FINLEY, and MADELINE HUNTER

In The National Elementary Principal

"Hi, Mom—I'm home. Mrs. Sarson's my new teacher—she's nice but she made us do a whole page of arithmetic on the first day! Jim's in my room and we can sit together as long as we take care of ourselves and don't talk too much. What have you got to eat?"

The 10-year-old whirlwind of noise, enthusiasm, and appetite disappears in the kitchen and the first report to parents from your school has been completed. Mother and father relax after dinner, secure in the feeling that their son has a "nice" teacher who will make 10-year-old boys behave themselves and who believes that arithmetic is important.

This impromptu "first report" is amplified and modified daily by school books and papers that are brought home, notes from the teacher, Parent-Teacher Association notices, school bulletins, and articles in the newspapers. Every single communication between school and home is an important factor in reporting to parents. As Johnny rattles on about the boy who had to stand in the closet, the spelling test, the arithmetic paper he didn't have time to finish, the P.T.A. notice which he refers to as "that old thing," attitudes develop in his family that profoundly influence the interpretation of these communications.

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By the time the first official report to parents is scheduled, Mom and Dad have formed definite opinions about school policy, teaching personnel, and the curriculum based entirely on a series of communications that were never intended for that purpose. They also have deep-rooted attitudes about "reporting," developed by their own traumatic school experiences when a report meant the dreaded day of judgment had arrived and each child was irrevocably branded as an *A, B, C, D,* or *F* student. The decision was final; there was no appeal.

Whether Johnny's Dad collected *A's* or *F's* there has been formed a personal attitude toward your system of reporting more profound than any of the factors that you as a school administrator can directly

control. With this in mind, reports to parents must be carefully prepared so that they will develop positive attitudes and ensure a real and productive feeling of cooperation between home and school.

There are many opportunities for making the school report a constructive factor in home-school relations. Wanting their child to succeed at school is a universal drive with parents, and any school that can report real success is certain of enthusiastic parental acceptance and support. Knowing this, teachers are sometimes tempted to "sugar coat" a child's performance. This is a dangerous procedure. Reporting the complete picture will pay dividends in future parent understanding and cooperation. Careful consideration of "how" an inadequacy is reported can take the sting out of it and result in good parent relations.

Timing is another decisive factor in the formation of desirable home-school relationships. From the moment she gives him his final behind-the-ears inspection on the first day of school, Mom lives in an agony of suspense until she finds out "how he's doing." For some parents this torture of anxiety and doubt is prolonged two, three, or even four months until the teacher really knows the child and feels secure in a report of his status. To be sure, a teacher needs time to do a good job of reporting. Nevertheless a wise administration will provide the opportunity, probably at the end of the first month of school, for relief of this parent anxiety without placing the teacher in the embarrassing position of having to know all about each child.

This can be accomplished in many ways. All the parents may be invited to an evening meeting. They meet the parents of their child's classmates. They see the room where he lives and works at school. They can examine his textbooks. They become acquainted with his teacher as she talks to the group about school policies, her own program, and plans for the year. She can make it very clear that she cannot accurately report on every child at this early date, but she can give parents a descriptive picture of what the average child in her room can do and what she hopes he will accomplish during this year at school. The presence of the principal at this meeting gives his stamp of approval as well as conveys the impression that he is carefully supervising the educational program and progress of the class.

If this type of introduction of the parent to the school is well planned and successfully executed, the parents leave with the feeling that the child is in good hands and they are aware of "what is going on at school." This experience provides a background for their interpretation of future communications between school and home. They, too, have seen and held "the great big book with dinosaurs and stuff in it." They know why an aquarium is a valuable learning experience in the classroom and they will help Johnny with the paper drive "so we

can buy fish." Most important, they develop an understanding of modern education in terms of the experiences Johnny is having at school and they are awaiting with eagerness the scheduled period for reporting this progress.

It is probably more desirable to present a progress report in a conference where good relationships may be built and questions asked and answered. Here the teacher can give parents the opportunity of telling her what's on their minds—a privilege generally denied them in a written report. But should local policy provide for a written report, good home-school relationships may be developed with the following guides:

1. If it is a "good" report, specifically state success in terms of what the child is doing. "Bob's eagerness and enthusiasm for maps have made geography a fascinating subject for the whole class." An "excellent" or "outstanding" is merely a report of status.

2. If it is a report of weakness, temper it with encouragement and the possibility of overcoming it in the future. A child's report might have the comment. "We both know Fred has the ability to do better in reading. Could you come to school some afternoon so we can plan ways of helping him at school and at home?"

Parents' attitudes are a vital factor in the quantity and quality of a child's learning. It is essential that the teacher be aware of these attitudes and parents need to know that what they think about school is important to school people. One group of teachers in a workshop devoted to developing desirable home-school relations agreed on a check list to evaluate themselves:

These practices are important. Do I:

1. Attempt to have a conference with every parent?
2. Try to be a good listener so that I, too, may learn from the conference?
3. Try to be a good leader and encourage discussion so the parent feels that the problems are neither his nor mine, but ours?
4. Use lay language as much as possible and make clear any professional terms I may use?
5. Include all the favorable reports for each child, but give parents a true picture of the child's performance in relation to his ability?
6. Make every parent feel that his child is in good hands?
7. Treat every parent as a friend?
8. Show parents that I like my work?

As a follow-up after a conference, parents should be encouraged to express themselves in answer to such questions as, "Did you find out what you wanted to know?" "Do you have other questions?" "Did you enjoy the conference?"

The part the child plays in any system of reporting cannot be overemphasized. A "satisfied little customer" will help to develop favorable attitudes at home that begin the first day of school. Frequent progress appraisals with the child keep him aware of his status and remove the feeling of secrecy and impending doom that often accompanies reporting periods. Any of the child's work that is sent home

should be carefully selected, corrected, or annotated so it presents a true picture. Sending home a "failing" paper for a parent's signature with no accompanying explanation creates a Frankenstein of misunderstanding between child, school, and home. Any situation where negative attitudes are apt to develop should be handled by a parent-teacher conference. It is often desirable to enlarge the conference by including the child and at times the principal, nurse, or other school personnel.

As the chief administrator of the local school, the principal realizes that his home-school relations are directly proportional to the skill and tact of his teachers. He has the responsibility for making teachers aware of the important place reporting occupies in the development of successful home-school relationships. Having developed in teachers an awareness of the far-reaching implications of any type of communication to parents, the principal must make provision for in-service education of teachers in this area. Many principals have found the following practices effective:

1. A collection is made of lists of questions commonly asked of teachers, such as: "Is this a progressive school?" "What about phonics?" "Do children just play in kindergarten?" Teachers' workshop meetings devoted to answering these and similar questions in lay language will produce rich dividends in future teacher-parent contacts. In these meetings teachers will unify their own philosophy and broaden their own experiences in terms of other grade levels as, for example, they hear the kindergarten teacher explain why ABC's are not formally taught in her class.

2. Workshops on how to conduct a parent conference with demonstrations and role playing make the teacher feel more secure in this difficult assignment.

3. Individual teacher evaluation and guidance follow-up must be done by the principal. He should help the teacher in her preparation for difficult cases. Out of these specific cases he should guide the teacher in the development of general principles that can be applied to every child in the class.

4. Committees of parents are eager to work with the administrators and teachers in improving the plan of reporting and determining its effectiveness. Such groups generate interest in the school program throughout the community, and parents feel that they are making a genuine contribution to education through their participation in the program.

5. The principal may assist the teacher in planning classroom visitation for parents which will act as background or follow-up for any type of report. He should be on hand to give support to the program for both teacher and parent.

6. Realizing that every communication between school and home is a partial report to parents, the principal must be constantly in touch with the situation. He knows that certain teachers need his constant guidance and surveillance, while the majority need only guide lines. He must keep in touch with the progress of special cases where parents may not have a positive attitude toward the school. He will need to help the teacher plan for these children as well as to interpret the progress to the parents. Throughout the program, the principal must assume the responsibility for educational leadership and follow-up where needed. ●

WHAT else is education but the reverent joining of the past to the gloom of the future by making wise use of the present.—Pestalozzi.

The School and Community Cooperated in this Project so

We Moved Downtown!

J. H. MICHNA

In Wisconsin Journal of Education

BELOIT pupils and faculty members moved their class work and extra-curricular activities right into downtown store windows and out over the air waves this year in an experiment in utilizing the facilities of the community for education.

The whole project grew rapidly and naturally out of a routine art club meeting to which the department store's professional decorator was invited as a guest lecturer. The tremendous interest shown by art club students in the artistic problems of window display led the students to ask for an opportunity to try their hands at the work. At this point the store's decorator made possible the whole educational project by securing permission from the store owner to allow students to take over the advertising display and publicity work for one week of an annual late fall sale.

Four departments of the high school collaborated very closely; in fact, "integrated" is too mild a word for the process, as the art, speech, chemistry, and journalism students consulted each other and the store officials to prepare for their big week. Students planned, selected, and arranged all the displays for a bank of 12 display windows in the store, wrote the copy for the advertisements in the local and school newspapers, and read the manufacturer's literature for information on products to be mentioned on the store's weekly radio program over a local radio station.

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The theme of the display was "Man Made Materials" and concerned plastic materials manufactured by chemical means instead of grown by natural processes. The chemistry classes, therefore, turned their classes over to industrial chemistry experiments in which they made some of their own plastic materials for a display booth inside the store, where they extolled the advantages of new plastic materials over older materials, such as silk and wool.

The art club, once the window decoration became a definite art job, became so busy that the project expanded into regular art classes. Sketches, as well as scale drawings of each window were made and colored so that well-balanced arrangement, contrast of materials, and color harmony were obtained. Special types of display lettering

and explanatory signs had to be made.

Buyers and department heads in the store had to be consulted as to which items they desired displayed and at what prices. The windows had to be arranged and finished in the same time the store ordinarily took for changing its window displays, a matter of eight to 10 hours after and before regular opening and closing hours that week-end.

Beloit's size as a medium large city with a trade area of 35,000 to 40,000 was a fortunate factor in the project. The town is large enough to have several large department stores offering some possible employment to students interested in this type of work. A possible source in the future of especially talented employees is perhaps indicated in the number of students who expressed interest in some of the types of work they did as a future means of livelihood.

The town has a daily newspaper, which helped out generously. Two local radio stations with a daily program on one of them plugging the department store's wares also offered opportunity for participation by journalism and speech students.

For the speech students the opportunity to take over a regular daily advertising program was a rare and all-too-lifelike educational experience. Their "plugs" over the radio for the products displayed in the windows not only had to be in good oral English, but they had to be exact and appealing. The daily program, an early morning shoppers' "coffee hour," featured on sale the same day a number of items which had to be described simply and attractively. Several student announcers were selected, and a large number of speech students wrote "copy" for them, securing their material by interviews and talks with the store's buyers and officials. A tape recording of the program and radios in the classroom aided materially in this phase of the work. The regular woman commentator on the program checked material beforehand, but then she bravely sat back as the students took over in her spot for their day's work. She aided in the appraisal of the work later.

Journalism students prepared a full-page ad in the local paper which appeared on the day previous to the opening of the displays. They had started several weeks earlier consulting with speech students and store buyers on the merchandise to be featured and had planned the layout under the supervision of the store's advertising layout artist. They had available all the tools including commercially produced equipment used by professional workers, as did, of course, the art students in their work.

Wording of the ad, grouping of clipped mat-service illustrations, and overall effect of the full-page ad were all of their own doing. Their names as compilers of the advertisement were included prominently on the page, leading no doubt to a larger number of readers among parents, relatives, and friends. The

students who participated were all ad solicitors or members of the business management staff of the school newspaper and they acquired experience immediately valuable and translatable to their own school newspaper from their work on the page of actual advertising.

The science department also contributed in several ways to the project. In order to secure plastic samples for their display booth, a number of chemistry students wrote business letters to chemical and manufacturing firms asking favors, letters not too easy for experienced adults to compose. Other science students received impromptu publicity training in arranging their booth and acting as "spielers" to explain the superiority of their "Man Made Materials" over natural products.

One last experience was gained by a group involved. The four faculty members involved received —with somewhat apprehensive delight—the opportunity to display their own public-relations ability by explaining the whole project in their own words over the local radio station on the same store program several days previous to their students' program.

One proof of the success of the whole project was furnished in the comments of the store's professional decorator. He sincerely maintained that the windows were at least the equal of, if not better than, his own average efforts. It should be said, however, that he had allowed the students an entirely free hand artistically in their selection and arrangement of materials, greater freedom than he usually was permitted, due to the practical necessity of pleasing many departments, buyers, and store officials in his own window displays.

This experiment of moving our education out into the community occupied approximately 120-150 students for two, three, or more weeks previous to it. Five classes, including art, chemistry, journalism, and speech groups were involved, as were two extracurricular activities, the art club and the school newspaper. Four teachers under the leadership of the art teacher, two professional commercial artists, and one radio commentator, all entered the picture with the cooperation and very real assistance of the high-school principal and city school superintendent.

And the upshot of it all was that the store and all school personnel involved are heartily in favor of making the project an annual affair in order that future classes of students may also benefit. •

A SEMINAR in "relaxation" for women graduate students in physical education will be offered during the second semester.—*University of Wisconsin News.*

Who says that we are forgetting the "Three R's" in education—reading, 'riting, and relaxation.

The Strait-Jacket Can Be Removed

Wasteful Building Codes Call for Community Action

ROBERT L. DURHAM

In The Nation's Schools

THE functional approach to architecture has found a fertile field in school planning. Teamed with a new concept in planning has come the use of more expendable construction, designed to be in keeping with the useful life expectancy of a building. In many places, however, these efforts in functional planning, new techniques, and the use of new materials are being hampered and limited by obsolete building codes.

In today's one-story schoolhouse with ground-level egress almost within sight of each child, our codes require a new analysis. In one city, wall construction is still required to be fireproof because of a code written to protect children in a two-story or three-story building. In many cities the use of lighter framing construction over large glass areas in single floor planning runs headlong into deadlock with masonry parapet requirements. Improvement can come and without delay if backed by an aroused public.

In the city of Seattle, committees have been organized whose membership includes architects, engineers, contractors, and building material suppliers, who have been meeting to lay the groundwork for a new code. In this case they have chosen "to prune one limb at a time," with the city council adoption of a new plumbing code now accomplished and a new proposed electrical code being considered. Study committees have been formed for each field of construction, with all efforts coordinated by the Construction Committee of the Chamber of Commerce. When a section of the code has been tentatively approved by the study committee, it is then distributed to all interested organizations. With this technique, a unified campaign in the request for City Council approval is accomplished. In order to have the guidance of an over-all civic group whose interests are on a broader scale, the Mayor has appointed what is known as the Mayor's Building Code Committee, composed of professional and civic group representatives. Their efforts are aimed at protecting public safety and protecting property within a reasonable relationship to the economics involved.

It must be understood that many

Robert L. Durham, an architect, is former Chairman of the Construction Division, Chamber of Commerce, Seattle, Washington. Reported from The Nation's Schools, *XLIX (May, 1952), 74–75.*

items in building-code legislation require careful and painstaking research and analysis by trained code writers. This is where "John Smith, Citizen and Parent" comes in. Without John Smith's energetic support, city administrators will not budget money for code improvement. Even at a time when many cities are spending many thousands of dollars each year on city planning, there are few city budgets that include funds for code improvement.

Most cities of any size can justify a reasonable budget to employ a permanent full-time code analyst with the necessary secretarial assistance. His function would be to make a continuing study of the building code and to collect data from national committees, other cities, and research laboratories. By its nature a citizen's committee seldom does this sort of job well.

To give a specific example, the Seattle school administration had asked for study of the construction of gymnasiums or multipurpose activity rooms which are built on ground level with provision for exits on two or three sides. The present Seattle code limits capacity to 500 in an ordinary masonry building. Capacity, however, is computed on the basis of six square feet per person unless the school officials go on record with the building department in limiting the room to athletic participation only. In other words, such a room is limited to an area approximately 50 by 60 feet if it is also used for spectators or community activities. A study group of architects and engineers has indicated the reasonableness of constructing a standard junior-high gymnasium approximately 90 by 104 at grade level, assuming that adequate exits are available. The construction would utilize steel trusses or wood laminated beams decked over with steel or wood plank. Because of the height of such a room they feel that it is safe to leave such construction unplastered.

In the Seattle case the problem is magnified by the lack of provision for folding bleachers. With the gymnasium constructed with folding bleachers for 300 people, use of the gymnasium for a community Hallowe'en party would exceed the legal capacity limitations unless the building were constructed in mill or fireproof construction—hence, an obvious community problem affecting John Smith, his pocketbook, and his family. Naturally he wants the building to be safe, but he can no longer afford to build it stronger or safer than realistic conditions require.

The technicalities of writing a code to cover problems of this nature, as can be seen, require trained, paid technicians. Progress will be limited until a large number of parents convince their city administrators that money for code improvements is an economy in the long run. It would appear that a portion of the leadership for arousing the necessary public interest falls to the school administrator and his parent-teacher organization. •

Not Just Cooking in This Program of

Homemaking Education for Boys and Girls

WINIFRED T. SNYDER

In California Journal of Secondary Education

THE boy, as well as the girl in junior-high school, needs to grow in his understanding and practices of successful family living. Educators are realizing increasingly that homemaking education is important for boys and that they do actually enjoy participating in household activities, in many of which they can excel.

In Los Angeles the supervisor of homemaking in the Los Angeles City Schools and the principal of Horace Mann Junior High School conceived the idea that an upper-division homemaking class, open to both boys and girls, would fill the need to develop wholesome, friendly attitudes towards members of the opposite sex.

The class has proven popular. The original one class a semester has developed into four classes this semester. No pressure is put on pupils to join the class. They are told in advance that while there will be some preparation of food, the class is mainly one of social development.

Since pupils make their choices of classes early in the preceding semester, the counselor is able to see that the classes have an equal number of boys and girls. A boy and a girl work as partners at each desk, and partners are changed four times a semester. At the first meeting of the class we line the boys and girls up by height and seat them accordingly, thus avoiding the situation of a very short boy working with a tall girl. At succeeding partner changes, first the boys choose partners, then the girls choose partners.

Winifred T. Snyder is Chairman of the Homemaking Department at Horace Mann Junior High School, Los Angeles, California. *Reported from* California Journal of Secondary Education, *XXVII (March, 1952), 139–41.*

The class meets in a food room, but we are fortunate in having another classroom available when other activities are planned. The food-preparation part of the course helps to satisfy the adolescent need for activity and for work with materials instead of working with ideas alone. After becoming acquainted, our first project may be to plan, prepare, and serve a breakfast. While not all the weeks are planned on a meal-planning basis, we like to include such activities as the planning and preparing of a "sit-down" dinner, of a buffet dinner, and of a barbecue. There is also a pie-baking project (very popular with both pupils and parents), when each pupil has the

opportunity to bake a large pie to take home to his family. The pupils take a field trip to a large bakery, dairy, or to the farmers' market.

Our barbecues are always big affairs. We have a portable barbecue outfit which we set up in the patio of the school. Each class plans the food with the teacher's help, decides which teachers and administrators to invite, learns about invitations and then writes them, and finally prepares, serves and eats (a most important part!) the food. The barbecue is held at noon. Most of the food is prepared the day before so that a majority of the pupils in the class are guests with just a few helping with the serving of the meal.

Soon after the organization of the class, we discovered a need among the pupils for instruction in social dancing. The girls complained that their parties were not a success because the boys would not dance (actually they could not dance). We started having dance classes every Friday during the class period. You do not have to be an Arthur Murray to teach dancing. A simple two-step, the waltz step, and finally a very simple jitterbug step is enough.

To help pupils learn what to say, what to wear, how to act at social gatherings, we discuss manners and etiquette as they apply to the junior-high-school pupils. Since we find that how to make and acknowledge introductions bothers most teen-agers, we practice making introductions with members of the group acting as parents, teacher, boy-friends or girl-friends.

We know that pupils are confused when home and peer standards conflict; so some effort is made to reconcile parent and pupil conflict. We find a "gripe sheet" extremely useful in discovering problems of the group. Each pupil writes five gripes—one with his father, one with his mother, one with sister or brother, one with teacher and/or administrator, and one miscellaneous. It is amazing how much can be learned by the teacher from these sheets. The pupils sign the papers, but are assured by the teacher that the sheets are confidential. There will be many chances to discuss family relationships, growth and development of small children, and duties and privileges of children in the home when these questions are answered and discussed.

Finally, the teacher must get away from the influence of the feminine atmosphere of her training in the homemaking field, and give the class a masculine appeal. When cooking is done, there must be plenty of food. Boys like to eat and to show off what they have made to their friends. This is excellent advertising for the course.

The personality of the teacher must be such that she can make a success of this type of class. It requires new thinking, new approaches and much teacher planning. We at Horace Mann feel this class fills a definite need in the junior-high-school curriculum •

A First-Hand Report of

Communism in Education in the South Pacific

WALTER CROSBY EELLS

In the Educational Record

CONTINUING a study made of various aspects of communism in education in the Pacific area—a part of which has already been reported in *The Educational Record* (January, 1952)—the writer has spent six more months of traveling, visiting educational institutions, and conferring with educational leaders and American cultural attachés in Australia, New Zealand, Indonesia, Thailand (Siam), and Burma. Noted here are evidences of Communist influence in this area.

Australia.—Leadership of the teachers unions in some of the six Australian states is in the hands of conservative leadership, but this is distinctly not true of New South Wales, the greatest in population of the six states and containing the largest city of Australia, Sydney, with over a million inhabitants. The leadership of the New South Wales Teachers Union is markedly and militantly Communist.

The "bursaries" or scholarships given to all students in the teachers colleges of Australia have lost some of their purchasing power with the mounting inflation and consequent increased cost of living. The students themselves were not satisfied with the situation but were not ready to adopt vigorous or disruptive means to secure desired increases. With typical Communist strategy, however, of seizing on a popular issue and one that represents at least partial cause for legitimate discontent, the teachers of the Teachers Union of New South Wales stirred up the incipient dissatisfaction on the part of the students of Sydney Teachers College, persuaded them to go on brief strikes from classes, and organized a downtown demonstration of students absenting themselves from classes in order to demand from the government increases in their bursaries.

When questioned, Dr. Harold Wyndam, Deputy Director of Education for New South Wales, admitted that there were some Communist influences among the schools of the state, but did not feel that the situation at present was serious or was one that called for immediate drastic action. He said that the department was watching the situation closely. Dr. Cunningham, Director of the influential Australian Educational Research Association, has his

Walter Crosby Eells, a student of educational institutions in the Pacific area, is a former adviser on higher education in Japan with SCAP. *Reported from* The Educational Record, *XXXIII (April, 1952), 198–211.*

headquarters in Melbourne, in the state of Victoria, a great rival of Sydney. He has been familiar with educational developments in Australia for many years. He stated to the writer that he knew of little Communist influence in most of the schools.

New Zealand.—Little positive evidence of disruptive Communist influence was found among the schools of New Zealand. Here the standard of living is high, grinding poverty, and empty stomachs (which communism so frequently exploits) are unknown, and the people are contented. They think, and with some reason, that New Zealand is as near Utopia as can be found on this troubled globe today. Communism finds it difficult to take root and blossom in such an atmosphere.

Indonesia.—Indonesia is a mere infant among the family of nations. Since the Dutch transferred sovereignty to the vast archipelago (except western New Guinea, still in dispute), the new leadership, with inadequate opportunities to develop under the long Dutch regime, has been faced by many staggering challenges—political, economic, diplomatic, social, and educational. Such unsettled conditions have furnished a fertile field for the development of Communist ideology with its specious promises of quick improvement.

There are two million Chinese among the 70 million people of the new country. As in many countries of Southeastern Asia, they maintain their own schools. Most of the teachers are "Chinese-born, young, and pro-Peiping," according to a competent observer. Doubtless there is plenty of Communist influence in many of the Chinese schools, but the infant government of Indonesia has been so busy in the two short years of its existence in trying to get a public-school system established and to set up a nation-wide program to reduce adult illiteracy, which is estimated at 90 percent or higher, that it has had little chance to develop as yet any adequate control of private schools. Two universities now exist. Life for the students is far from easy. Dormitory rooms, even when available, have five or six students crowded into them. The price of textbooks, equipment, and supplies is almost prohibitive, and scholarship allowances are meager and inadequate. More than 90 percent of the students are working. Such conditions among young, ambitious university students are commonly recognized as fertile ground for the development of communism.

Thailand.—Thailand has some 18 million people but only two multi-faculty universities, both located in Bangkok, the capital. Officials stated that there was no significant Communist influence, brushing aside as of "no significance" questions regarding some incidents.

The proportion of Chinese residents in Thailand is substantial as it is in other countries in Southeast Asia. A careful observer states: "Probably the majority of Chinese

schools in Thailand are pro-Communist in the sense that the teachers are leftist and have introduced Communist textbooks and teaching methods."

The government of Thailand has a positive and vigorous attitude toward communism in the schools. Forty or 50 Chinese teachers have been deported on evidence that they were teaching communism. Some of them carried Communist party cards and other party documents.

Burma.—Burma, on the very frontiers of the Russian and Chinese empires, is at the crossroads of the highways to China, India, and Southeast Asia. Therefore it offers a most tempting prize to the Communist world. If Burma falls, then the whole economic, political, and strategic structure of Asia may change radically with it. Burma was twice devastated during the war, caught between two fires—first by the Japanese and then by the British. More important now to many Burmese than pro-communism or anti-communism is their strong anti-foreign feeling. They are willing to learn, but not be dictated to, particularly by anyone with a white skin.

In its attitude toward communism in general and particularly toward communistic influences in the schools, the official attitude of Burma is distinctly different from that of any of the dozen other countries visited by the writer in the Pacific area. Every other government officially has been opposed to communism and has adopted various methods for endeavoring to eliminate it from the schools, both public and private. But in Burma, the official attitude of the government is not of hostility, but of neutrality as far as possible. The schools reflect this position. There are even two rival "All Burma Student Unions," with identical names, one Communist, one anti-Communist. Unlike the situation in most other countries of Southeast Asia, the Chinese population is relatively small, with their greatest concentration in Rangoon.

In spite of general official neutrality, however, Burma is showing in various ways a distinct leaning toward the development of a democratic school system. A mission is abroad studying educational methods. This is the first Burmese educational mission ever sent to the West. Initiative for it came from the government itself, not from the American or British embassies, and it is financed by the Burmese government. It is significant that it has spent six weeks in England followed by plans for six months in the United States, Canada, and Mexico. It is planned to travel from coast to coast, studying especially technical and vocational education as well as general education.

Fortunately, there is considerable evidence to indicate that Burma, while officially neutral, is benevolently neutral in favor of democratic education and is quietly but effectively working against the threat of Communist influence in her schools. •

What to Look for When

Evaluating Your Typewriting Classroom

EARL P. STRONG and MILDRED E. REED

In Business Education World

IN evaluating a typewriting classroom, what does one look for? When thinking of a typewriting setup that would be adaptable in all school situations with a minimum amount of expense and yet merit a "good" evaluation, one should consider three important factors: (1) the typewriters, (2) the furniture and fixtures, and (3) the room.

Classroom Typewriters.—The first consideration is to use up-to-date equipment. The training of students on equipment that is new and modern will be more in keeping with the equipment they will use when they go out on the job. Some schools have adopted the plan whereby old machines are turned in every three years. This tends to prorate the expense and, at the same time, makes it possible to have the latest equipment.

Some school administrators and business teachers continue to purchase a variety of makes of typewriters when equipping a room. There is little justification for this action. The argument that students must learn to typewrite on all makes of machines is a lofty ideal; but, when this practice is followed, an added burden is thrown on the school, the teachers, and the students. The burden to the school comes about through increased cost of maintenance. The added burden to the teacher comes about through having to teach all makes of machines to groups of students.

Earl P. Strong and Mildred E. Reed are members of the faculty of the College of Commerce, University of Illinois, Champaign. *Reported from* Business Education World, *XXXII (May, 1952), 444–46.*

The added burden to students comes in slowing down their learning as a result of switching from one make of typewriter to another and having to become adjusted to each make during the learning process. To be sure, the students, when later working in offices, will not all work on the same make of typewriter on which they were instructed in school. Nevertheless, insistence that all students learn to use all makes in school is about as sensible as requiring that all students learn to drive all makes of automobiles while taking their driver-training course. The ease with which individuals are able to transfer a knowledge of operative parts is indicated by an experience that is almost universal to everyone, the driving of various makes and sizes of automobiles. By experimenting with the various operative parts for a minute or two before

starting, and by proceeding slowly for a short distance, the operator soon is able to handle any car without hesitation, even when the element of size is a differentiating factor—a factor that is not present in the different makes of typewriters.

Any of the standard makes of typewriters may be selected. It is good policy, however, to determine the makes most widely used in the area employing your graduates, and let this information be at least one guiding factor in the selection of the make of machine.

A consideration of typewriters also brings up the question of electric typewriters in the typing room. Business firms are rapidly and extensively switching to electric typewriters; and, since this is true, schools should make adequate provision for students to become familiar with them.

Some teachers continue to think that they must use a blanked-out keyboard. Blanking out the keyboard is a detriment to the students, and it does *not* keep them from looking at the keys.

It seems almost needless to mention, but to remove any doubts that might exist, by all means use a keyboard that is standard in use in the offices throughout the nation. The standard keyboard today is the "Universal" keyboard.

Furniture and Fixtures.—There seems to be one best typing position in relation to the height of the writing surface—the hands and arms of the typist should be in the same relative slant as the typewriter keyboard. The slants of various machines differ, but whatever the slant, the hands and arms of the typist should be in that same slant.

Consequently, adjustments should be made in typists' chairs and desks to permit correct posture while sitting at the typewriter. You will probably ask now, "How high *should* the tables be from the floor?" This is difficult to answer, for there seems to be no uniform height applicable to all typists. In general, however, we may say that the majority of the tables should be 28 to 30 inches in height. A good test is to position a typist at the machine, have her put her hands on the home row, and stand off and look at her from the side. Correct position is attained when her arms and hands are in the same relative slant as the typewriter keyboard.

Light oak or blond maple is probably the most desirable type of wood for desks and chairs in a typewriting classroom. The use of light furniture in a room makes the room bright, reduces contrasts, and prevents visual strain.

While it is desirable from the individual typist's standpoint to have adjustable posture chairs, they are not practical in a typewriting room where the chairs are used by as many as eight different persons a day. Therefore the chairs used should be a type on which the average person can sit comfortably. They should be stationary (no casters), firmly and solidly constructed. The back rest should be curved to fit the typist's back.

Demonstration stands for the teacher's use when teaching typewriting are too seldom found in classrooms! Certainly the demonstration stand in the classroom is a justifiable expenditure of money, and it is a great aid to the teacher in demonstrating the techniques of good typewriting. From the very first day the teacher can *show* the students how to typewrite and not merely *tell* them how it is done.

There are numerous other items that should be included as a part of the equipment of a typewriting room to make teaching easier and more efficient. Such items are: copyholders, a good dictionary, an interval timer, a four-drawer file, a supply cupboard, a paper cutter, a punch, a stapler, a record player and rhythmic typewriting records to add spice to the classwork occasionally, duplicating equipment, and voice-writing equipment.

The Typewriting Room.—The typewriting room should be spacious, with plenty of "elbow room" —not cramped and congested. Space should be available for 30 students' desks. This number of students is not too great for one teacher, and yet the 30 students will provide enough activity so that no one individual student will be conscious of his own typing. There should be plenty of space between each chair and table, and aisles between the rows and around the room. The teacher's desk and demonstration stand, perhaps on a raised platform, should be in the front center. Ample blackboard and bulletin-board space should be provided where it can easily be seen by all students.

The typewriting room should be cheerful, with uniform brightness throughout. Inadequate lighting fixtures should be replaced with modern up-to-date fixtures, preferably of the fluorescent type. The traditional schoolroom drabness can be eliminated with bright-colored walls and light-colored floors. Thus, a room with a minimum amount of natural light can be greatly improved with peach or light yellow paint; whereas, a room with adequate window space is made even more attractive if decorated in light green or light blue colors.

It goes without saying that soundproofing is a "must" for the typewriting room. Though the clicking of typewriter keys is music to the ears of most typewriting teachers and students, noise does cause mental strain and fatigue. Soundproofing is accomplished by affixing sound-absorbing perforated fiber tiles to the ceiling of the room. These can be painted or washed the same as the ceiling itself.

Typewriting teachers and school administrators are urged to view their typewriting classrooms critically in the light of the above suggestions. The expense of the improvements suggested are not prohibitive, nor do they have to be effected all at one time. If a complete program of improvement is not possible at one time, plan the improvements over a period of years. •

A Technic for Developing

Democracy at Home and School

WILLARD C. OLSON

In the School of Education Bulletin

TECHNICAL studies of human development have contributed greatly to our understanding of children and of effective interpersonal relationships. It is clear that value systems growing out of our culture, and not closely related to contemporary research, continue to create confusion and sometimes conflict in the relationships of home and school. The practices that exist in schools usually reflect the readiness of parents and community to modernize education in the best sense of the word but are sometimes ambiguous because of a lack of homogeneity in the values accepted by the groups who support schools.

If a child with an austere type of discipline at home meets a highly permissive environment in the school, the parents question and the child may be confused. Conversely, if a child has had much experience in participation in the home he will naturally wish to continue in the same way in the school and is confused by regimentation.

An example from educational practice further illustrates the problem. Modern studies of child growth clearly support the idea of nurturing the child according to his needs and maturity. Consistent with these findings is the practice of sharing information on growth with parents and children through interviews, conferences, and continuous guidance. Yet the older tradition that growth will be altered by some formal system of incentives, such as marks or a threat of failure, continues to persist after the technical studies are completed. Actually, incentives have more to do with productivity than with alteration in growth rates.

Willard C. Olson is Dean of the School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. *Reported from* The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin, *XXIII (February, 1952), 65–69.*

The social development of a child represents a complex interweaving of his needs as an individual and of the requirements of persons and of the society which surrounds him. The nurture of a child improves when an adjustment is made both for individuality and for social relationships.

The writer has been asked from time to time to put the technical background on growth and social relationships into the broader framework of home and school cooperation. The material which follows has been used in duplicated form with meetings of parents and teachers and is included here with

the thought that it may be helpful to others in organizing materials for similar occasions.

The general procedure in the use of the following guide has been to devote about 30 minutes to the discussion of the concepts. The large group is then broken up into subgroups of five, six, or seven. Each group elects a chairman and spokesman (recorder) and engages in a "buzz" session on the content and on the suggestions for action which follow. The chairman introduces the spokesman who reports the consensus or raises questions.

DEMOCRACY AT HOME AND SCHOOL*

Can We Get Together in Philosophy and Action?

Among other things democracy is a way of looking at individual values and human relationships. Harmony in viewpoint and method at home and school carries the possibility of a more consistent set of cultural values and a more unified personality in children. The following are illustrations of how a philosophy of growth might be developed and practiced at home and school.

I. GENERAL PHILOSOPHY AND METHOD

The parent:

Regards discipline as a problem of growth from dependence to independence. Is helpful but releases control as rapidly as the child demonstrates ability to discipline himself.

Uses situations to give child practice as rapidly as desirable in responsibility for choice of companions, distribution of time, use of money, choice and purchase of wearing apparel, and similar matters.

The teacher:

Regards discipline as a problem of growth from dependence to independence. Gives children practice and releases control as rapidly as children can assume it.

Allows children to participate in planning and modifying their curriculum experiences. They may alter the time schedule within the limits at their disposal.

II. SECURITY AND MOTIVATION

The parent:

Attempts to give the child the security which comes from knowing that he is loved. This occurs both as a result of direct expressions of affection and as an indirect result of a consistent attempt to be constructive and helpful in all personal relations with the child.

Usually does not raise the question of personal attachment and filial obligation. Assumes these exist. Secures results on the basis of the merits of the issue presented rather than on a personal basis.

Accepts the child as he is and helps him to grow. Does not punish and scold him for being less able than someone else.

The teacher:

Is thoughtful to avoid conditions that will cause a child to be rejected by his associates.

Keeps the emotional climate serene by being integrative rather than punishing in behavior.

Is tolerant of wide differences in children, takes each child where he is and helps him to grow without the damaging effects of constant comparison with others.

* Copies of this form may be secured from the University Elementary School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, at 50c for 25 copies, postpaid.

III. Growth in Orderliness

The parent:

Educates the child to comply with reasonable requests. Takes the trouble to explain reasons, if child does not understand.

Child feels free to discuss matters with parent. Child respects but does not fear parent. The child is controlled by increasing responsibility for his own acts.

The teacher:

Allows children to participate in the formulation of guides to conduct and in discussions for improvement of behavior.

IV. Management of Conflicts in Behavior

The parent:

Relies on reduction of excitement, adequate food, and sufficient rest, for reducing irritability that may result in temper tantrums, fights, etc. Uses constructive approach and language controls detailed elsewhere. Is able to demonstrate that physical punishment is unnecessary for adequate control.

The teacher:

Tries to understand what is back of conflict. Chats with child. Plans constructive releases. Seeks additional professional aid for serious problems.

V. Planning the Environment and Its Use

The parent:

Has made plans for the child's tools, books, and work space, so as to reduce irritations and increase selfhelp and selfactivity.

The teacher:

Makes provision for alternate rest and activity. Provides releases and expression in play, dance, music, art media, drama, etc.

Provides a range of three to five years in difficulty of reading, arithmetic, spelling, and other materials of instruction. Uses selfselection as technic of adjustment.

VI. The Use of Language

The parent:

Consistently and skillfully directs the child by constructive suggestions as to what to do. Approves the desirable. Emphasizes "Do."

Avoids the use of negative and reproving language such as "Don't . . . ," "Stop . . . ," "You shouldn't . . . ," etc. Avoids automatic scolding.

The teacher:

Attempts to redirect the attention of child by constructive suggestions on what to do, and approval of the desirable: "Do . . . ," "Go . . . ," etc.

Avoids the use of negative and reproving language: "Don't . . . ," "Stop . . . ," "You shouldn't," etc. Avoids use of recurring blanket commands such as "Be quiet!"

VII. Guidance and Appraisal

The parent:

Gives the child approval for tasks performed, notes desirable consequences

The teacher:

Allows the child to participate in decisions, notes desirable consequences

of certain lines of action, and tries to make the successful completion of a request or task its own reward.

Avoids the promiscuous use of external incentives.

Works understandingly with teacher on a growth philosophy in parent-teacher conferences.

of certain lines of action, approves and encourages.

Avoids the use of external incentives such as comparative marks. Encourages child appraisal and reporting.

Uses child and parent interview for sharing, learning, and guidance.

It is very clear from the technical studies that action and knowledge are not synonymous. How is it possible to build a bridge between conceptual frameworks as outlined above and changes in behavior at home and school? The answer seems to lie in decision and in motivated practice. After the discussion period the teachers and parents were asked to agree by a showing of hands to undertake simple activities of the following type. The general principle is that to change behavior one must correlate thought, feeling, and action. It was believed to be sound in mass methods to start with the simple things.

Exercise A. For parent and teacher: When you discover that you have used negative language, note its effects, and rephrase mentally how you might have said it. With a little practice of this type you will "catch" yourself before you start and can rephrase before you speak. Incidents of this type, if recorded, can also be excellent material for discussion in study groups.

Exercise B. For the parent: If you have not done it recently, create some leisure in which to chat with your child. *For the teacher:* Do you have a child who seems "mean"? Arrange to have a conversation with him about nothing in particular to see what will emerge in a spontaneous way.

It is clear that such concepts and behaviors as these outlined above are matters of slow growth. Shared thinking, discussion, feeling, and action promise to assist in a more rapid and orderly incorporation of technical knowledge in the improvement of social and individual growth at home and school. •

You Can't Start Too Early

LET us see how many parents, doctors, nurses, social workers, teachers, and other children's workers can be helped to understand what is known about the emotional and social development of children, so that they can put this knowledge into their everyday dealings with parents and with children. We should start on this job in the doctor's office; in maternity and child health clinics; in nursery schools and day nurseries.

—Dr. Martha M. Eliot, chief of the U.S. Children's Bureau

Why Teachers Turn to the "Help Wanted" Columns

Bafflegabb in the Program of Studies

H. E. PANABAKER

In The Alberta Teachers' Association Magazine

THE most serious occupational disease among Alberta teachers today is frustration. The disease has several causes; but among the most serious is bafflegabb in the program of studies, or, to be more precise, the curriculum guides.

Bafflegabb has been defined as follows: "Multiloquence characterized by consummate interfusion of circumlocution or periphrasis, inscrutability, incognizability, and other familiar manifestations of abstruse expatiation commonly utilized for promulgations implementing procrustean determinations of governmental bodies." This rather technical definition may be interpreted for the nontechnical reader as the art of using a great many high-faluting words in order to conceal your meaning, if you have one, so that you can please everybody at once.

There was a time, not too long ago either, when a reasonably intelligent teacher could read the program of studies and understand what was expected of him. Now, however, he pores over the multifarious curriculum guides in their very bright and attractive colors and finds spread before him "a very fantastical banquet" from which he turns aside neither nourished himself nor able to give nourishment to others.

H. E. Panabaker is Supervisor of Guidance and Junior High Schools in Calgary, Alberta, Canada. *Reported from* The Alberta Teachers' Association Magazine, *XXXII (April, 1952), 8–10, 48.*

Among the dishes at this banquet is one labeled "OBJECTIVES." Formerly, this was a simple, unadorned bowl containing a few health-giving fruits. Now it is an ornate tureen, heavily incrusted with gold leaf in the later Italian style. Raising the pretentiously heavy cover releases an aroma not the most enticing and reveals an assortment of exotic fruits, the product of grafting so-called psychology on the ancient tree of pedagogy.

Ordinary human beings enter the teaching profession on the naive assumption that the teacher's function is to teach reading, writing, arithmetic, language, social studies, or science so that, when pupils have finished a certain part of the work, they will be able to read a certain level of material correctly, do certain mathematical problems accurately, or know certain facts in social studies and science and be able to demonstrate that knowledge. Of course, such people understand that methods of teaching have changed;

they know that mere repetition and drill will not suffice. They expect to conduct classes in line with the best of modern knowledge. They will motivate pupils by a variety of means and in a multitude of ways and encourage them to participate in a wide range of activities. They will be very genuinely concerned with the personal development of the children under them. They will seek to make their classrooms healthful places in which children may grow.

However, they still fondly believe that their job is to educate—that through their activities, children will be able to do many specific things more accurately and to know many specific things more precisely. They hold to the quaint notion that exact knowledge does possess virtue even in these progressive days. They believe that when the facts about his country are suitably experienced by the child, he will acquire certain desirable attitudes toward it, that when a child has mastered arithmetical processes, he will have some insight into quantitative thinking, and that when the child has been really drilled in science, he will gain some understanding of the rigorous discipline involved in the scientific method. But they have a deep-seated feeling that such attitudes, insights, and understandings are long in developing and, therefore, can be only the rather distant end-products of education.

So these healthy folk come into the teaching profession. The task may be to teach the social studies. They have the idea that they are to deal with the history and geography of Canada and other parts of the world to the end that the child will know a considerable body of historical and geographical facts which he will be able to relate in certain ways as a basis for understanding present-day problems. They think their function is to build the foundation of fact and that the understanding will come later as a result of growth and experience. But when they read the curriculum guides they soon learn how wrong they are.

They find such things as these listed as *specific objectives* for various units of work: "The child should show that he has acquired an attitude of intelligent loyalty to Canada. The child should show that he has acquired a generalization that Canadians increase their wealth through labor, machinery, and the use of power. The child should show that he has acquired an attitude of active interest in man's further improvement of the standard of living through the fuller exploitation of the possibilities of raw materials. The child should show that he has acquired an attitude of admiration for the work of the pioneers in shaping Canada as a free democratic country. The child should show that he had acquired the habit of looking objectively at the world around him. The child should show that he has acquired an attitude of intelligent loyalty to the various community groups of which he is a member. The child

should show that he has acquired the habit of regarding himself as a member of organized groups to each of which he owes a responsibility. The child should show that he has acquired the ability to make comparisons of exports of countries through the use of bar graphs. The child should show that he has acquired the generalization that administering the decisions of Parliament requires the services of experts. The child should show that he had acquired an attitude of intelligent pride in being a member of the British Commonwealth of Nations."

"Well," say our beginners, "those are very good objectives, very good indeed. But how, pray, are we to make sure they are achieved. How, for example, do we define an attitude of social concern—listed as one of the specific objectives of the Health and Social Development Course? With specific objectives stated in this way, when will we know, how can we tell whether or not we have done our job effectively? To us, as selfrespecting workers, this question is extremely important."

Our beginners turn again to the books for answers. The books let them down. Oh, they contain much erudite educational philosophy, considerable criticism, implicit and explicit, of the traditional school, but of help in developing, recognizing, or measuring these intangibles called attitudes practically nothing at all, although unit after unit lists them as specific objectives rather than concomitant learnings.

A little later these ordinary human teachers begin scanning the "help wanted" columns in the daily press or making contacts with the oil industry. Can you blame them—much? •

Maybe They Never Heard of a Sand Sucker!

Is a jar of candy heavier than a jar of sand? That problem was purely academic to 30 orphan kids who recently took part in a psychology experiment at Emory University.

The experiment, conducted by Miss Ruth Lynch, Larchmont, N.Y., as part of her work on her master's degree, was designed to find out whether a person's sense of value" influences his judgment of weight. Jars of candy and sand were placed in pairs and the youngsters were asked to pick them up and estimate which ones were the heavier. Even though the candy was often lighter, the response went overwhelmingly to the candy!

"The fact that candy was of positive value, while the sand was of neutral value, influenced the choice," Miss Lynch concluded.

Elementary Schools Have the Jump on High Schools

Planning the High School for Tomorrow's Curriculum

LAWRENCE B. PERKINS

In Educational Leadership

COMPLETING a year's survey of public-school buildings in the United States, an overseas architect recently commented that he had seen five school buildings he considered noteworthy. None of these were high schools.

His five "noteworthy" elementary schools all possessed certain common characteristics. He noted a sense of space, whether real or artificial; an informal, home-like atmosphere; and a self-sufficiency in that facilities were scaled to the requirements of each school system's curriculum, yet made provision for serving the community after hours. All of these characteristics are generally accepted as goals in the planning of elementary schools today. Unfortunately their application to high-school architecture has been rare.

Some remarkable elementary-school buildings, planned from 25 to 50 years ago by pioneering architects of the modern "Chicago" school, revealed evidence of an understanding of these principles. Full exploitation of them was hindered, however, by limitations of traditional building materials, and by an evident desire of both school administrators and architects to frost their buildings with an old-world style.

Lawrence B. Perkins is an architect, a member of the firm of Perkins and Will, Chicago, Illinois. *Reported from* Educational Leadership, *IX (April, 1952), 409–12.*

A renaissance of these principles was brought to the attention of educators in the Crow Island School, Winnetka, Illinois, completed in 1940. The architects, Eliel Saarinen, Eero Saarinen, and Perkins, Wheeler and Will, have received far more than their just due as pioneers of this contemporary type of school. None of the appropriate architectural elements of this building, or its successors, could have been created without a controlling educational philosophy, the bones around which the architects moulded the ultimate form.

Crow Island's most important innovations in plan and design actually originated from the democratic planning of teachers, caretakers, parents, school-board members, and above all, children. These innovations have stood the test of the school's first dozen years because they were grounded solidly on the experience of both school and community in shaping their own curriculum and activities around the needs of children.

Scores of elementary schools planned since World War II have achieved appropriate solutions to children's needs independently through the same processes. Many communities, particularly younger suburban and rural villages, have produced distinguished, livable school structures.

Whatever the causes of the lag in the application of desirable improvement in high-school architecture, a grave problem is presented. The rising tide of war babies has not yet hit the high schools. It will, with thunderous impact, in the next five years. And because high-school districts are organized, generally, to serve the populations of half a dozen, or more, elementary districts, high schools will probably serve populations double or more those for which they were built.

The problem of expanding high-school plants must be solved at a time when the very concept of secondary education is in a state of flux. Administrators face serious decisions in planning the proportionate spaces to be devoted to academic, industrial arts, physical education, and community services. More often than not, their decisions must be based on practical administrative problems and maximum utilization of space, rather than on solutions to the problems of adolescent youth. As high-school populations double, many high-school plants may find themselves faced with administrative problems so enormous that they will overshadow those concerning the welfare of the students themselves.

In addition to housing the maximum number of students at minimum cost, tomorrow's high school must equip each student as fully as possible for the problem he will face in the next step in his career. Thus the high school must resolve the conflicting ideas of general education and specialized education. Should the college-preparatory students focus entirely on the academic fields that he will pursue in the university? Should the vocational student acquire technical skills to the exclusion of social studies, the arts, and other subjects that will contribute to his equipment as a citizen? The solutions to these questions, reached in each school system, will largely determine the types of space to be built, and the proportion to be given to each.

Because attitudes on these questions are changing so rapidly, the solutions cannot be reached by administrators, board members, and architects alone. They must receive the fullest, thoughtful study from teachers, pupils, and parents, who working together democratically, can evolve the curriculum that fulfills most closely the needs of their community and their children.

We believe that two important trends will emerge in high-school planning. The first is *flexibility*. Spaces will be planned for double and triple use in the crowded years ahead, and for adaptability to changing ideas of curriculum as

the maturing concept of the high-school's role emerges from the present state of flux.

The second is a *reversal of the trend to huge, central high-school plants serving oversized districts.* High-school plants may be held to workable size by redistricting in line with population shifts.

Some districts will avoid unwieldy giants by assigning an increasingly important "safety-valve" role to the junior-high school, which can shift readily from a 6-2-4 to a 6-3-3 pattern as the birth tide progresses upward. Still others will turn to the junior college to round out curriculum needs of various special groups of students.

The trend to large sites for new high schools opens an interesting possibility. This is the breaking up of the single high-school plant into a number of smaller, more easily managed building groups, offering students easy identity in more self-contained schools and departments. Thus the necessarily large high school will achieve a workable scale for its components much as does the university with its specialized graduate and undergraduate schools.

Each high-school district has its own peculiar governing circumstances. No single solution, no single building pattern will serve all. All can, however, arrive at the best solution, educationally and economically, by serious study of their problems—study shared democratically by board and administrator, by teacher and caretaker, by parent and student.

The architect's role in shaping the high school of the future is to contribute his experience in translating the physical requirements *of each educational solution* into a tentative working budget. Once the school system has evolved its ideal programs for the years ahead, the architect can show how each program can be fitted to the existing plant economically, without sacrificing flexibility and functional utility.

His most important function is not necessarily the planning and designing of the ultimate buildings. It is in surveying the existing plant in terms of future curriculum, and relating future building programs to the educational program.

The high schools that will solve their expansion problems most soundly are those that begin early to work out their changing educational programs democratically and then update them continually. The building programs will then become appropriate to their educational functions, and the buildings noteworthy in their architecture. •

How Crowded Can You Get?

WHEN the schools get so crowded that a kid has to elbow his way around and deliver spitballs by hand, it's time something was done.—Bob Hope, as quoted in *Junior Guidance Newsletter.*

"Readiness" May Be Just an Alibi

Have We Overemphasized the Readiness Factor?

GLENN MCCRACKEN

In Elementary English

No one denies that too many children are passing through our present-day schools without learning to read adequately. In one city the Director of Curriculum reported recently that, "On the basis of standardized tests given to all students from grade one through grade 12, we will have to say that 72 percent of our pupils are inadequate readers." And in one Pennsylvania college last year, 20 percent of the freshman class were required to take remedial reading courses, *without credit,* so that in the judgment of school authorities they would be able to read well enough to complete successfully their college program. Think of that! In a college class where most of the students came from the upper 50 percent of their high-school classes, 20 percent needed remedial reading. An indictment of our reading programs? Rather conclusive evidence isn't it?

Why? Why are we faced with the fact that our schools are clogged with poor readers? Why does reading inadequacy continue to be one of the principal causes of school drop-outs?

Here in New Castle, Pennsylvania, where a carefully conducted reading experimental program has been in progress for the past three years, there is an abundance of evidence to justify a very unpopular conclusion; namely, that, generally speaking, because we have failed to provide reading programs with which we can teach nearly every child to read, we have tried to justify our predicament by overemphasizing the *readiness* needs of the pupils. Since we could not, by traditional methods, teach more of our children to complete successfully a first-year program in one year, we have been willing to say that these children were not *ready* to learn to read.

This conclusion is based on work which has come to be known as the New Castle Reading Experiment, the results of which have been rather widely distributed and discussed. This work was started in 1947 when plans were formulated to prepare filmstrips to accompany the lessons contained in a particular basic reading program called the Laidlaw Basic Primary Reading Program with Textfilms.

Glenn McCracken is Principal of the Arthur McGill and Highland Elementary Schools, New Castle, Pennsylvania. Reported from Elementary English, *XXIX (May, 1952), 271–76.*

Working on the assumption that the material in the basic reading program under consideration was adequate if it could be taught to the children, filmstrip (textfilms) frames were prepared which correlated with the various lessons in the basic program for grade one so that every lesson throughout the school year could be visualized for the learners. These frames were designed, not particularly to extend the concepts of the children in the world around them as is the main purpose of so much supplementary reading material, but to provide a more effective method for teaching the exact material as it appeared day by day in the textbook manual. The lessons on the filmstrip frames were, therefore, the same as corresponding ones in the textbooks, *but organized in such a manner that the best use might be made of the advantages that accompany projected material.* A textfilm manual was prepared which suggested to the teacher how she might use each frame with the lesson it accompanied.

In September, 1949, three of our teachers at the Thaddeus Stevens School began to use this program in their beginning classes. Each day's lesson was started at the screen. The large, brightly colored images, presented in a room with the lights dimmed, increased the interest of *all* the pupils to the extent that their attention spans were greatly lengthened. They provided a means for promoting vigorous pupil discussion. The more reticent and backward children made many trips to the screen "to explain," and to "point out," thus greatly improving their social confidence. These large, life-like images kept all of the children participating in every step of the lesson. New meanings were vividly clarified for each child and the learning was *fixed* in his mind because it was visualized for him. When the transfer was made from the screen to the books, the pupils could read successfully and enjoy the experience because they had worked out the problems of the lesson together, *from material which appealed to them.*

Before the end of this school year the teachers realized that they had the best groups of readers in their experience. When the objective data were studied, results seemed even more startling. The statistical data is too extensive to include here, but persons interested in studying it may write the author for copies.

What, in summary, were these results? Every pupil, regardless of his mental ability as indicated by his IQ, or his reading-readiness tests, scored into the second-grade level in reading achievement after eight and one-half months in grade one. There were no retentions. Pupils with IQ's as low as 81 and with readiness scores as low as 1.5 seemed entirely ready for the grade two program after one year in the beginning class. What does this mean to the school involved? It means that for two years now, in five sections of first-grade pupils,

no child has been an inadequate reader; no first-grade teacher has had to worry about problem readers; no unhappy parent has come to the building to find out wherein the school has failed with his child.

What revolutionary innovations were introduced into the program at the Thaddeus Stevens School in New Castle that could produce such startling improvement in the teaching of beginning reading? None at all. The preparation of an effective visual approach to the subject was *merely carrying out a group of recommendations* that many progressive educators have known for years would produce much better results; namely, (1) that pupils' mastery of subject matter is greatly improved when the teaching is visualized more and verbalized less, (2) that learning improves as interest increases, (3) that methods which promote vigorous discussion also improve learning, (4) that when provision is made for all of the pupils to participate in the entire lesson, a greater degree of learning will result for more pupils, (5) that when the problems at hand are vividly clarified, there is greater chance that the learning will become fixed in the mind of the learner, (6) that, *particularly with slower learning children,* more learning occurs when the teaching is in greater detail, and (7) that people learn faster from materials which have particular appeal to them. The program used in this experimental work provides a new and better method of *utilizing* the above values.

Are we on the wrong track when we place so much emphasis on readiness for reading in considering the progress of our pupils? I certainly think so. It is not the intention of this article to discredit any of the many fine features of the readiness factor. Certainly it was a great step forward when we began to realize that adequate plans for preparing the child for the reading experience must be made an important part of the primary reading program. I am well aware that pupils need to be prepared for the reading experience but I am equally convinced that we are greatly overemphasizing the need for extended prereading activities.

We talk too much about permitting pupils to progress at their own rate. Their own rate with what? With a reading program that may not fit their needs nor their interests? We should stop trying to fit the pupil to the program and begin working toward a program that will fit the pupil.

The psychology of human nature also points the finger of suspicion at the present trend in readiness. Six-year-old children come to school expecting to learn to read. Their parents expect us to teach them to read. The New Castle Reading Experiment continues to provide ample evidence that if we are willing to revise some of our methods that have not worked and build a program *that appeals to the child,* it can be done. •

★With Education in Washington★

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Korean G.I. Bill.—Schoolmen in Washington find it pleasant to talk about Public Law 550. They like almost every provision of what they call the Korean G.I. bill or, more properly, the Veterans Readjustment Assistance Act of 1952.

They like the one-package idea. This means that the government will pay to the veteran a sum of money to cover subsistence, tuition, and other school costs. It is supposed to eliminate much of the red-tape which the Veterans Administration has wrapped around the schooling of World War II veterans.

They like the scholarship angle. Public Law 550 has, in fact, been called the first federal scholarship plan because it places in the hands of the veteran the money through which to provide his own education.

They like the fact that the law calls upon established state and federal education agencies to have a greater share in the education of the veteran. This is achieved by making the Office of Education and the state approval agencies partners with Veterans Administration officials.

They like the manner in which fly-by-night schools are discouraged from exploiting the veteran. This is achieved by requiring that a class in a private school must have at least 15 percent of students who are paying their own way before a veteran can enroll in it.

Finally, they like the way in which the law keeps in mind the educational needs of the veteran. It requires that each man have an educational objective and a program to carry it out before enrolling. The goal may be purely academic, such as a B.A. degree; professional, such as becoming a teacher; or vocational, such as training for plumbing.

Let's Look at the Record.—The 82nd Congress may be remembered best for its enactment of scholarship benefits for Korean veterans. It may also be remembered for the fact that one of its committees wrote a report with great promises and then did nothing about them.

A few weeks before Congress went home, a House subcommittee on education saw fit to declare that Congress should help needy districts build new school buildings. The committee had in mind *all* districts with too little money and too many children—not merely those struggling under war-burdens. For a short while, the hopes of educators who had been plumping for school construction aid leaped high. They thought that the subcommittee's statement of policy might in time open the door for school construction aid for the entire nation. The subcommittee sent its recommendations on to the full House Education and Labor Committee. And there the story ended.

Many another major and minor educational issue was permitted to die in the 82nd Congress. The lawmakers either voted down or did nothing about federal scholarships, aid for migrant children, aid to public rural libraries, and medical education. They bypassed such explosive questions as UMT and federal aid to education. They voted down proposals to use revenue from offshore oil resources for education.

On the other hand, the 82nd Congress kept faith with school districts overburdened because of federal defense work. It voted a total of $195,000,000 to build schools in such districts; and $51,500,000 for operating expenses.

Party Platform and Education.—The 83rd session of Congress will meet in January, 1953. If it's a Republican Congress and its members are true to the 1952 GOP platform, they will have little to do with education in Washington. The reason is simple: The 1952 GOP platform says flatly that "the responsibility for popular education has rested upon the local communities and the states. We fully subscribe to that principle." This and nothing more.

If it's a Democratic Congress, and its members are true to their party platform, they will have quite a lot to do with education in Washington. The 1952 Democratic Party platform pledges support to medical education, a bigger school lunch program, further development of trade training, federal scholarships, aid to state and local school districts so that they can carry on minimum standards of education, and school services for children of migrant workers.

Captain Video Goes to School.—Here is a first. The Federal Communications Commission granted the Kansas College of Agriculture and Applied Sciences the first construction permit for an educational television station. Second, third, and fourth permits went to Albany, Buffalo, and Rochester, who will build television stations under the aegis of the New York State Board of Regents. The FCC has nine other applications and will probably approve each of them. Thus, the great movement to utilize the TV screen for education has begun.

The FCC is more than friendly to educational applicants. To illustrate: Before approving a commercial TV station, FCC requires evidence that its builders have money on hand to complete the job. It's more lenient to school authorities. In a memorandum issued at the time the FCC approved the Kansas station, government officials went out of their way to say that they do not expect schoolmen to have ready cash for the building job. The memorandum admitted that educators need time—lots of time—to go to their state legislatures or to their city councils for funds. But with this attitude of friendliness also went a mild warning—schoolmen should have reasonable hope of getting money before coming to Washington.

57 Heads Are Better Than One.—Fifty-seven men and women will come to Washington in December from places as widely separated as Maine and American Samoa, Florida and Hawaii. They are the chief state school officers of each state and possession. They are coming to Washington to meet with the U.S. Commissioner of Education, and to go over with him the manifold questions which arise when the federal government takes a hand in education.

The 57 men and women will first look at the expanding activities in international education. This year, for example, will see the largest number of teacher-trainees arriving from a total of 42 countries. These trainees will visit and travel in every state in the Union, and will need the cooperation of state departments of education and school systems. Within a few years the number of these foreign teacher-trainees will increase—we are encouraging teachers from foreign lands to come here for a first-hand look at democracy. In addition, of course, programs involving teacher exchanges, Fulbright scholars, and other educational workers under Mutual Security, are expected to increase. In short, we hope to be able to export more ideas about U.S. education to all parts of the world through individuals and through special missions. It will be up to the U.S. Commissioner of Education and state leaders to lay an orderly basis for expanding this work.

While the 57 men and women are in Washington they will also take a look at other points where state and U.S. educational interests cross. One of these is vocational education, since the chief state school officers believe it's time to dust off the 1917 and 1936 vocational education acts, reread them and reconsider the policies which have grown up under them. Then, of course, there are questions of Indian education, school lunch, vocational rehabilitation, and the new G.I. bill of rights on the agenda.

In the past, scholars and special commissions have studied federal-state relationships. The December meeting will be unique in that these questions will be studied by the men and women who are not academic observers but responsible practitioners.

Elementary-School Report.—There was a time when each U.S. Office of Education specialist worked in his own cubbyhole, writing his own bulletins. Teams of specialists now study one problem, pool their ideas, prepare a joint report.

One of the most comprehensive of these cooperative efforts is about to see the light of day. Among the federal educators it is known as Project 90. This is a shop label for a study which began two years ago and took eight specialists to elementary classrooms all over the country. They observed good practices, made notes, sifted them, and then selected the best for a bulletin to be called *Good Elementary School Practices in the 48 States.* ●

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENTS:

Sioux Falls, S.D.: **E. W. Skarda**, former assistant superintendent, has succeeded **Lyman M. Fort**, who has retired.

Williamsport, Pa.: **George H. Parkes**, former director of Williamsport Technical Institute, now heads the Williamsport schools. He succeeds **Paul E. Witmeyer**, now professor of education, Bucknell University.

Arlington, Va.: **T. Edward Rutter** has been named successor to **William A. Early** as superintendent. Mr. Rutter was principal of Virginia's largest high school, Washington-Lee, Arlington.

Ann Arbor, Mich.: The retirement in 1953 of **Otto W. Haisley** as superintendent has been announced. Mr. Haisley, president of the Michigan Association of School Administrators, will begin a year of terminal leave in July, 1953, during which time he will be available in an advisory capacity.

Gloversville, N.Y.: New head is **Fred Ambellan**, former administrative assistant to the superintendent at Great Neck, L.I. He succeeds **Fred B. Painter**, named superintendent at Brighton, N.Y.

Iowa City, Ia.: **Buford W. Garner**, principal of Iowa City High School, has been named superintendent to succeed **Iver A. Opstad.**

San Angelo, Tex.: **Bryan Dickson**, superintendent for the last 10 years, has resigned.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

University of Arkansas, Fayetteville: **John Tyler Caldwell** has been named president. He formerly was president of Alabama College, Montevallo.

University of Vermont, Burlington: **Carl W. Borgmann**, formerly dean of faculties, University of Nebraska, is the new president.

Ferris Institute, Big Rapids, Mich.: **Victor F. Spathelf**, dean of student affairs, Wayne University, Detroit, has been named president, succeeding **Byron J. Brophy**, resigned.

New Jersey State Teachers College, Glassboro: **Thomas E. Robinson** is the new head. Dr. Robinson is editor of the National School Public Relations Association's newsletter, "It Starts in the Classroom."

City College, N.Y.: **Buell G. Gallagher**, U.S. Assistant Commissioner of Education, has been named president. He replaces **Harry N. Wright**, who has retired.

American University, Washington, D.C.: New president is **Hurst R. Anderson**, formerly president of Hamline University, St. Paul, Minn. He succeeds **Paul A. Douglass**, who has resigned. Dr. Douglass is at present working in the office of the President of Korea on the coordination of government activities, basic industrial policy, and training for public service.

University of Nevada, Reno: **Minard W. Stout**, formerly professor of education, University of Minnesota, has succeeded **Malcolm A. Love** as president.

University of Notre Dame, Ind.: Succeeding the **Reverend John J. Cavanaugh** as president is the **Reverend Theodore M. Hesburgh**, formerly executive vice-president. The Rev. Mr. Cavanaugh has now become a member of the Provincial Council of the Congregation of the Holy Cross with an assignment as special assistant to Father Hesburgh.

Texas Technological College, Lubbock: **Edward Newlon Jones**, formerly vice-president, is now president. He succeeds **D. M. Wiggins**, retired.

New Mexico Highlands University, Las Vegas: **Thomas C. Donnelly** became president on Sept. 1. Dr. Donnelly, former dean of the College of Arts and Sciences and the General College of the University of New Mexico, succeeds **Edward Eyring.**

Adams State College, Alamosa, Colo.: **Fred J. Plachy**, professor of education, Black Hills Teachers College, has been named president, succeeding, **N. William Newsom**, resigned.

Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge: **Troy H. Middleton** has taken office as president, replacing **Harold W. Stoke**, resigned. Lieut. Gen. Troy H. Middleton was commander of the 45th Division and Eighth Army Corps during World War II.

Columbia University, New York: **Millicent Carey McIntosh** has been given the newly created title of president of Barnard College. Mrs. McIntosh retains a deanship in the university and will continue as a member of the University Council.

San Jose State College, San Jose, Calif.: **John T. Wahlquist**, dean of the School of Education, University of Utah, became president on the retirement of **Thomas W. MacQuarrie**.

Southeastern Louisiana College, Hammond: **Clark L. Barrow**, formerly superintendent of schools, East Baton Rouge, has succeeded the late **Gladney J. Tinsley** as president.

Huron College, Huron, S. Dak.: The **Reverend John R. Williams** has been appointed president to succeed the **Reverend George F. McDougall**, retired.

San Diego State College, San Diego, Calif.: On the retirement of **Walter Ray Hepner** on September 1, **Malcom A. Love** became president. Mr. Love was formerly president of the University of Nevada.

Loyola University, New Orleans, La.: The **Very Reverend W. Patrick Donnelly** has been named president to succeed the **Very Reverend Thomas J. Shields.** He was formerly president of Spring Hill (Ala.) College.

MacMurray College, Jacksonville, Ill.: The new president is **Louis W. Norris**, former dean of DePauw University, who replaces **Clarence Paul McClelland**, retired.

Teacher-Training Institutions:

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York: **S. Ralph Powers** retired in June as head of the department of natural sciences. He was editor of *Science Education* magazine.

Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.: **Julian E. Butterworth**, professor of rural education, retired on July 1. During the coming year he plans to devote half time to work with the Cooperative Program of Educational Administration.

Pennsylvania State College: **Mary Jane Wyland** has retired as professor of education after 25 years of service.

Michigan State College, East Lansing: **Lee M. Thurston**, state superintendent of public instruction, will become dean of the newly-established school of education at the expiration of his present term of office. **C. V. Millard**, director of the division of education in the school of science and arts since 1944, will serve as dean of the new school until Dr. Thurston assumes his duties in July, 1953. He will then become research professor of elementary education and director, Child Development Laboratory.

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis: **Walter W. Cook**, professor of educational psychology, has been named dean of the College of Education to succeed the late **Wesley E. Peik.**

National College of Education, Evanston, Ill.: **Kenneth E. Howe** assumed his duties September 1 as director of the Children's School, succeeding **Clara Belle Baker**, who retired. Dr. Howe, formerly chairman of the educational department of New York State Teachers' College, New Paltz, has been educational consultant for the supreme command for the Allied Powers in Japan for the past year.

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York: **Maurice H. Fouracre** assumed his post as head of the special education department on September 1. He has been director of the Division of Education for Exceptional Children at the New York State College for Teachers, Buffalo.

University of Wisconsin, Madison: **Theodore L. Torgerson**, professor of education, retired at the end of the summer session at the university.

Hofstra College, Hempstead, N.Y.: **Doyle M. Bortner**, formerly head of the

department of education and psychology, Bates College, is now chairman of the department of education.

Other Changes and Appointments:

H. Gordon Hullfish, professor of education at Ohio State University, is the new president of the American Education Fellowship, succeeding **Kenneth Benne** of the University of Illinois. Headquarters office of the organization, formerly known as the Progressive Education Association, has been moved from the University of Illinois to the Ohio State campus.

Leversia L. Powers, formerly chief of elementary education, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, has been named technical director of the Education Program of Honduras, with the Institute of Inter-American Affairs under the United States State Department.

Arthur W. Foshay is the new director of the bureau of educational research at Ohio State University. He was associate professor of education at Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Oliver J. Caldwell has been appointed U.S. Assistant Commissioner for International Education. Mr. Caldwell, a noted author and educator, has been with the Department of State for the last six years.

David D. Henry, formerly president of Wayne University, Detroit, Mich., is now executive vice-chancellor of New York University.

John H. Bosshart, commissioner of education in New Jersey, retired on June 30.

Louis L. Thurstone, who has held the Charles F. Grey distinguished service professorship of psychology at the University of Chicago since 1938, has retired with emeritus status. Professor Thurstone, known for his research in the field of psychological measurement and multiple factor analysis of intelligence, was the organizer with his wife of the Psychometric Laboratory at the University of Chicago.

William James Haggerty has been named educational adviser to the Government of India under the Point IV Program. He has been granted a year's leave from his post as president of New York State University Teachers College, New Paltz.

Burney Lynch Parkinson has joined the faculty of Mary Washington College, University of Virginia. He was president of Mississippi State College for Women for the last 20 years.

Agnes Samuelson, assistant editor of the *NEA Journal* and assistant director of publications for NEA, retired July 1.

John W. Shreve, director of the Metropolitan Detroit, Mich., Bureau of Cooperative School Studies, has been appointed director of research of the Cincinnati Public Schools, succeeding **C. O. Tower.**

Ruth Andrus, chief of the bureau of child development and parent education in the New York State Education Department, retired on May 1 to become research coordinator at the Cold Spring Project of the Walt Foundation, a postgraduate school for college graduates, 60 years of age and older.

H. Maine Shoun is now state supervisor of high schools for the Idaho State Department of Public Education. He succeeds **O. D. Cole**, who is now assistant superintendent at Anchorage, Alaska.

Everett T. Calvert, principal of Washington Elementary School, Pasadena, Calif., for the last 11 years, has been named editor-in-chief of American Book Company, New York. He succeeds **W. W. Livengood**, who is now executive assistant to the president.

Recent Deaths:

Lucius A. Whipple, president of Rhode Island College of Education, Providence, at 65 years of age.

Arthur B. Moehlman, professor emeritus of school administration and supervision, University of Michigan, at 63 years.

Myrtle Hooper Dahl, former president of NEA, at 65 years of age.

John Amherst Sexson, former superintendent of schools of Pasadena, Calif., and past president of the American Association of School Administrators.

Maria Montessori, Italian educational reformer and former government inspector of Italian schools, at 81 years of age.

Frederick Stephen Breed, 65, associate professor emeritus of education, University of Chicago.

Glenn H. Nelson, professor of education, University of Arizona, at 52 years of age.

The **Reverend Frederick Herbert Sill**, founder and former headmaster of Kent School, Conn., at 78 years of age.

Harland A. Ladd, 48, state commissioner of education, Maine.

John Dewey, professor emeritus of philosophy, Columbia University, at 92 years of age.

Clyde A. Erwin, state superintendent of public instruction, North Carolina, at 55 years of age. He was a member of the editorial advisory board of THE EDUCATION DIGEST.

NEA Convention

THE NEA, holding its 90th annual convention in Detroit, June 29–July 4, approved a resolution urging no public funds be used for support of private or parochial schools.

The association also discussed the magazine article, "Your Child is Their Target" published in the *American Legion Magazine* (June, 1952), which implied that there is a "conspiracy" to commit American public schools to the service of dictatorship, either of communism or fascism. A resolution calling for severe criticism of the American Legion for the article was tabled after prolonged debate.

A variety of discussion groups were held during the convention to inform educators on the following topics: meeting needs of country children in town and city schools; teachers' creeds and loyalty legislation; the school's part in developing wholesome personality; moral education of mentally handicapped children; competitive athletics for children of elementary school age; salary scheduling in periods of inflation; and the challenge of television to education.

At the convention's closing session, Mrs. Sarah C. Caldwell of Akron, Ohio, was elected president for 1952–53.

Opposition to Unesco

BENJAMIN FINE, writing in the *New York Times* (June 29), discusses the recent bitter opposition that has developed to the teaching of information about the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Unesco) or the United Nations in schools and colleges of the country.

Declaring that much of the opposition comes from selfstyled super-patriotic organizations, Mr. Fine points out that leading educators are deeply concerned over this trend since they see in it an extension of the "thought control" found in increased censorship of textbooks.

Among the examples of pressure that has been brought to bear on curtailing study of the UN and Unesco, Mr. Fine mentions the high schools of Houston, Tex., and Los Angeles, Calif., that were forced to

suspend participation in the annual essay contest conducted by the American Association for United Nations. The Pawtucket, R.I., High School also recently suspended the "Unesco Thinkers," a club of students, on the grounds that Unesco was suspected of having atheistic and communistic leanings.

The American Association for the United Nations, through its education director, Dorothy B. Robbins, recently issued a statement calling attention to these developments. "Because the United States is a member of the United Nations," the statement said, "it is the duty of teachers to give their students as much information about the United Nations as possible .... Opposition to teaching about the United Nations, Unesco and other specialized agencies is founded on misinformation, fear and prejudice."

Other individuals and organizations quoted by Mr. Fine in support of this idea include A. J. Stoddard, superintendent of Los Angeles, Calif. schools, Dr. Charles H. Hamblen, professor of education, University of Florida, American Civil Liberties Union, the Pawtucket League of Women Voters and Council for Education, Dr. Luther H. Evans, librarian of Congress, and Dr. Willard E. Givens, former executive secretary of the NEA. The International Relations Committee of the American Association of University Women is preparing a kit of materials on the United Nations and Unesco for the use of the association's members in combating these attacks against the international organization.

High School Teacher Fellowships

THE Fund for the Advancement of Education established by the Ford Foundation announces that it is setting up a program of fellowships for 400 public high-school teachers in the United States and its territories during the year 1952–53. Eligibility is limited to classroom teachers who taught the equivalent of at least one full term during the 1951–52 academic year in one of the 400 public high-school systems invited by the National Committee to participate in this program. Individual applicants are asked not to apply to The Fund for the Advancement of Education, but only to the superintendent of schools or the selection committee in the participating community.

Less Money for Education

AMERICAN cities spent less per school child last year than for either of the two preceding years in terms of uniform purchasing power, Earl James McGrath, U.S. Commissioner of Education, reveals. Calling the curtailment a shocking condition, Mr. McGrath points out that this reduction occurred in the face of a rise of the nation's income, after taxes, of $55 per person. "We cannot afford a further reduction in educational standards in our public schools," Mr. McGrath declared. "The actual educational investment in each boy and girl attending

school last year dropped by six dollars in terms of uniform purchasing power as shown in the Consumer Price Index, 1950–51 base."

The decrease in expenditure is shown in a study by the Office of Education, the full report of which is published as Circular No. 337.

New Magazine

THE International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction announces that it will expand its professional bulletin, "The Reading Teacher" into a full-sized magazine beginning with the fall issue. Nancy Larrick, present editor on the bulletin, will continue as editor. Headquarters for the Council is located at The Reading Laboratory, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh 13, Pa.

Teacher of the Year

MRS. GERALDINE JONES, teacher of first grade at Hope Public School, Santa Barbara, Calif., was honored by being named the first "Teacher of the Year." Selection of the "Teacher of the Year" was instigated by U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl J. McGrath to promote the cause of education.

To select the honored teacher, the country was divided into ten regions. A state department of education in each region was asked to nominate one elementary- and one high-school teacher. Each chief state school officer consulted was asked to make the nomination for his state. The teachers nominated were interviewed and *McCall's* magazine made the final selections. A picture story of the Teacher of the Year appeared in the June (1952) issue of *McCall's* magazine.

Five additional teachers were also cited for distinguished service. They were: Miss Adelaide Dodge, Central High School, Manchester, N.H.; Mrs. Doris M. Marshall, Helena High School, Helena, Mont.; Miss Rosalind Zapf, Denby High School, Detroit, Mich.; Miss Margaret Marionneaux, Crescent Elementary School, Iberville, La.; and Miss Emma Hayes Wade, Eakin School, Nashville, Tenn.

To Teach Aviation

PROMPTED by the growing difficulty of the aviation industry and government agencies in hiring engineers with knowledge of aeronautics and related subjects, the Civil Aeronautics Administration, U. S. Department of Commerce, has published a suggested one-year vocational course for high schools entitled "Exploring Aviation." Copies are available from the Aviation Education Division of the CAA in Washington.

Money for School Lunch

A TOTAL of $65,875,000 has been apportioned among the 48 states, District of Columbia and U. S. Territories by the U. S. Department of Agriculture for the National School Lunch Program during the 1952–53 school year. In addition to the funds apportioned, $16,000,000 is available to the Department for the purchase and distribution of foods

which help to meet the nutritional requirement of school children using the program.

The law requires this year that each dollar of federal funds disbursed must be matched by $1.50 from sources within the state if the per capita income in the state equals or exceeds the national average. In other states the matching requirement is decreased by the percentage which the per capita income is below that of the United States as a whole.

The program is administered jointly by the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the state departments of education. Last year 1½ billion meals were served to 9.3 million children attending 56,000 participating schools.

Defense Against Attack

A MANUAL designed to aid school administrators in developing programs that will save children's lives in the event of attack has been issued by the Federal Civil Defense Administration. Entitled *Civil Defense in Schools*, the manual can be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., at 15 cents a copy.

Pen Friends

THE International Friendship League, 40 Mt. Vernon St., Boston 8, Mass., reports that it has a long list of names from 72 countries for the use of teachers who wish to obtain pen friends in other countries for their students. The lists contain, in addition to the full name and address, special interests and degree of proficiency in English. The ages range from eight to 28 years.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Sept. 17-19, NEA and U. S. Department of Justice Seventh National Conference on Citizenship, Washington, D. C.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Oct. 12-15, Seventh National Conference of County and Rural Area Superintendents, New York City.

Oct. 12-16, Association of School Business Officials of the United States and Canada, Atlantic City, N. J.

Oct. 20-23, Adult Education Association of the United States, East Lansing, Mich.

Oct. 20-24, National Safety Congress and Exposition, School and College Sessions, Chicago, Ill.

Oct. 27, Association of Urban Universities, Park Sheraton Hotel, Detroit, Mich.

Nov. 11-13, Association of University Evening Colleges, Atlanta, Ga.

Nov. 27-29, NEA National Council for the Social Studies, Dallas, Tex.

Feb. 14-19, 1953, National Conference, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J.

Feb. 21-25, 1953, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Statler Hotel, Los Angeles, Calif.

New Educational Materials

Elementary School Guidance. Ervin Winfred Detjen and Mary Ford Detjen. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1952. Pp. xi + 266. $3.75.

Although this book was written for all teachers who are interested in improving the mental health of children, it is designed primarily for elementary-school teachers and for college students who plan to teach. It contains explanatory material for the teacher plus step-by-step methods of classroom procedure to help put theory into practice. Such topics as the problems of dishonesty, daydreaming, fears, jealousy, fighting, and truancy are discussed. Suggestions are offered for developing responsibility, good manners, and fair play and for improving family relationships.

The American Secondary School. Paul B. Jacobson. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. viii + 458. $4.75.

Offered as a college text to introduce students to high-school teaching as a career, this book covers the operation of the secondary school in broad outline. In addition to a discussion of teaching as a career, the curriculum of the secondary school, extracurriculum activities and guidance problems, the book emphasizes two "foundation stones": (1) the developmental tasks of adolescents and (2) the social foundations of education.

They Learn What They Live. Helen G. Trager and Marian Radke Yarrow. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952. Pp. xvii + 392. $4.50.

Written to throw scientific light on the problem of prejudice as it affects children and as it is influenced by the school, this book records the work of the Philadelphia Early Childhood Project, whose objective was "to help teachers to develop in young children the attitudes and behavior basic to democratic living." The story of how the objective of the Project was pursued and how the basic theory of the research was applied, how the research team worked with teachers step by step to produce awareness and then action, adds an interesting, worthwhile chapter to the history of American education. The authors affirm that intercultural education has to be a community concern, requiring the active cooperation of parents, schools, and community leaders.

What Is Progressive Education? Carleton Washburne. New York: The John Day Company, Inc., 1952. Pp. 155. $2.50.

The author, a director of the Division of Graduate Studies and of the Teacher Education Program, Brooklyn College, and an early and long-time leader in the progressive-education movement, has written this book to tell parents and other citizens what is being done or attempted in progressive schools. He discusses in nonpedagogic style the difference between the traditional and modern schools, emphasizing discipline, authority, character, morals, and religion. He declares that the new methods do work, giving examples to prove his point and then in a chapter entitled "Why All the Shouting" he attempts to analyze the basis of criticisms against the system.

Elementary Social Studies Instruction. Maurice P. Moffatt and Hazel W. Howell. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., Inc., 1952. Pp. x + 486. $4.25.

The authors declare that the primary purpose of this book is to orient the teacher to the practices of educating children for participation in a democratic society. Combining theory and practice as applied to the learning proc-

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ess, the book is a practical guide for all elementary teachers, both those in training and those in service. The appendices contain lists of recommended books and periodicals for the elementary-school library, and sources of audio-visual materials to provide experiences for social learning.

Other Materials Received:

Elementary Education

High Roads. Paul McKee *et al.* Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1952. Pp. 304. $2.12. A new reader for the grades.

Guiding Children's Arithmetic Experiences. J. Allen Hickerson. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. 322. $5.00.

The Story of American Freedom. Edna McGuire. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1952. Pp. 437.

Secondary Education

Exploring Physics. Hyman Ruchlis and Harvey B. Lemon. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1952. Pp. 647. $3.96.

Business Fundamentals for Everyone. Chas. Fancher, J. Francis Gallagher, Chas. W. Hamilton. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. Pp. 486. $2.68.

Guidance

College and You. Calvin S. Sifferd. McKnight & McKnight Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill., 1952. 111 pp. $2.50. This well-illustrated book, written in the form of a series of letters from a father to his son and his daughter, attempts to answer the most common questions asked by the high-school senior. Questions such as choosing a college, budgeting, how to study, dating, fraternities, grades, campus activities, and homesickness are answered with restraint and tact.

Audio-Visuals

High School: Your Challenge and **The Meaning of Engagement** are two 16mm sound films intended to aid counselors. Recently released by Coronet Films, Chicago 1, Ill.

Educators Guide to Free Films. 12th Annual Edition. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1952. Pp. 508. $6.00.

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